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George Washington

The Pictorial Story of America

CONTAINING

THE ROMANTIC INCIDENTS OF HISTORY, FROM THE DISCOVERY
OF AMERICA TO THE PRESENT TIME.

WRITTEN BY

ELIA W. PEATTIE,

AUTHOR OF

"THE EXECUTIONER OF THE REVOLUTION," "A STORY OF BLOCK ISLAND," "GRIZEL COCHRAN,"
"THE VOYAGEUR," "MICAH ROOD," AND OTHER HISTORIC TALES.

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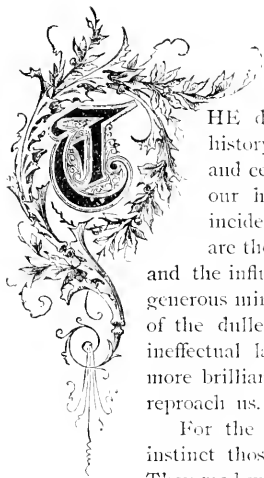
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31

Preface.



THE desire throughout, in the writing of this history, has been to record the heroic adventures and celebrate the picturesque incidents that make our history romantic and memorable. Such incidents as awaken patriotism and enthusiasm are those which are most worthy of preservation, and the influences they have upon the imaginative and generous minds of the young are incalculable. If some of the duller pages of the congressional debate and ineffectual law making have been neglected for these more brilliant chapters, it is not the young who will reproach us.

For the minds of the young select with unerring instinct those things which are of actual importance. They read with passionate tears of the martyrdom of the devoted; they are fired with heroism and lofty pride at the accomplishments of the heroic, and they condemn with bitter contempt the intrigues of the mean, and the cowardice of the time-serving. To arouse the noble impulse, and keep alive the love for patriotism, fidelity, bravery, and true holiness, has been the aim of the book.

It contains little that is new; but it has been sifted from the best histories, and the latest ones. It is, however, the first book to record the events of the last ten years, and these events it has tried to deal with impartially, unblinded by the conflict of parties, sects, or factions. If injustice has been done in any way, it has been unwitting. If it conveys, in understandable language, the most memorable occasions of our national history, condemning and praising where condemnation and praise are due, then it has accomplished all that it aimed to for its young readers.

ELIA W. PEATTIE.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

LIST OF PRESIDENTS AND VICE-PRESIDENTS.

CHAPTER.

- I. MASTODONS AND MYSTERY.
Earliest Inhabitants—Mound-Builders—American Indians.
- II. THE LEGENDARY CENTURY.
The first Discoverers of America—Myths, Legends and Traditions—Journey of the Norsemen.
- III. THE DREAMER OF GENOA.
Columbus and His Voyages—Amerigo Vespucci—The Cabots.
- IV. ACROSS THE DARK WATER.
Ponce De Leon—The Fountain of Youth—The Discovery of the South Sea by Balboa—De Soto—His Death.
- V. THE LILIES OF FRANCE.
France: Her Explorers and Settlements—The Fight Between French and Spanish Colonies.
- VI. A LODGE IN THE WILDERNESS.
The English—Their Search for the Northwest Passage—Frobisher's Explorations—Sir Humphrey Gilbert's Settlement—The Colony of Sir Walter Raleigh—Gosnold's Failure.
- VII. FOUNDING THE OLD DOMINION.
The London and Plymouth Companies—The Virginian Settlement—Captain John Smith and His Wonderful Adventures—Pocahontas—The New Charter—The Wreck of the "Sea Adventure."
- VIII. THROUGH DEATH TO VICTORY.
From the Bermudas to Virginia—The Starving Times—The Arrival of Lord De la Warre—Help from England—The Beginning of Slavery—The First Blow at Intemperance.
- IX. NORUMBEGA, THE BEAUTIFUL.
The Settlement of Maine—The Voyage of the English—Champlain and Vermont—The Settlement of Mt. Desert.

CHAPTER.

- X. CONQUEST OF THE WILDERNESS.
Nova Scotia and the English Despoliation—The Settlement of New Hampshire—The Mode of Northern Colonial Government.
- XI. THE DUTCHMEN OF NEW NETHERLAND.
The Settlement of New York—The Dutch: Their Explorations and Settlements—Their Dealings with the Indians—Their Success.
- XII. THE MAYFLOWER.
The Puritans—Their Trials and Wanderings—The Landing at Plymouth Rock—The First Winter.
- XIII. THE DAILY ROUND.
The Next Three Years—The Order, Civil, Martial and Religious, which they Maintained—The Manner of their Daily Living, etc.
- XIV. THE REWARD OF TREACHERY.
The Massacre at Jamestown—Lord Baltimore and the Settlement of Maryland—The Liberal Laws of the Baltimore Settlement.
- XV. THE PEACE-KEEPERS.
Prosperity of the Maryland Settlement—Conspiracies Against Them—The Triumph of Virginia Over Them, and the Persecution of the Catholics—Calvert's Success and the Return of the Jesuits.
- XVI. A BRIEF AUTHORITY.
New Jersey—The Settlement Under Peter Minnet—Opposition of the Dutch—The Triumphs of the Dutch Under Peter Stuyvesant—End of Swedish Independence in America.
- XVII. OLD WINE IN NEW BOTTLES.
The "Patroons" of New Netherland—The Settlement at Manhattan—The Manners and Customs of the Dutch—Establishment of Popular Land Laws.
- XVIII. KNICKERBOCKER DAYS.
The Government of William the Testy—Trouble with the Indians—The Night Attack on Pavonia—Revenge of the Indians—Dismissal of Kieft and Arrival of Peter Stuyvesant.

CHAPTER.

- XIX. THE OLD BAY SETTLEMENT.
The Massachusetts Bay Company—The Trials of the First Year—Arrival of Roger Williams—John Eliot—Persecution of Williams—His Settlement at Providence.
- XX. THE RAVAGES OF CIVILIZATION.
The American Indian—The Destruction of the Block Island Indians—The Extinction of the Pequot Tribe—The Federation of the English Colonies.
- XXI. THE PRIDE OF THE RIGHTEOUS.
The Religious Law of Boston—Gorton and His Beliefs—The Settlement at Shewanet—Persecution of the Gortonites—Persecution of the Baptists—The Obtaining of a Royal Charter for Rhode Island and the Providence Plantations.
- XXII. THROUGH PAIN TO PEACE.
The Quakers—Their Persecution—George Fox and His Friends—Mary Fisher and Ann Austin—The Quaker Children.
- XXIII. THE ROYALIST COLONY OF VIRGINIA.
Governor Berkeley and His Reign—More Trouble with the Indians—The Puritans Again Victorious—The Return of the Stuarts to Power.
- XXIV. "HEY, FOR ST. MARY'S!"
The Colony of Virginia—The Indians—The Uprising of Bacon and His Friends—Restriction of the Governor's Rights—Return of Berkeley—Desertion of Jamestown—Death of Bacon—Breaking up of Bacon's Party.
- XXV. EACH FOR HIMSELF.
The Carolinas—The Proprietors and Their "Grand Model"—The Albemarle Settlement—The Removal of Charleston—The Spanish Buccaneers—Seth Sothell—Quaker Rule.
- XXVI. MAN'S INHUMANITY TO MAN.
Attack of Indians on New Netherland—Destruction of Pavonia—Persecution of Lutherans and Quakers at New Amsterdam—Slavery Among the Dutch—English Encroachments—Surrender of New Netherland—Settlement of New Jersey.

CHAPTER.

XXVII. OUR COUNTRY, RIGHT OR WRONG.

Political Policy of Massachusetts—Efforts of England to Recover the Charter—Edward Randolph—Coin of the Colony—Sir Edmund Andros—The Episode of the Connecticut Charter—Arrest of Andros and Election of Phips—Death of Phips.

XXVIII. DAYS OF DREAD.

King Philip's War—Fight at Brookfield—Fight at Hadley—Fight at Deerfield.

XXIX. A PASSING MADNESS.

How the Witchcraft Hallucination Started—Samuel Parris and His Witchcraft Library—The Trial and Death of Giles Corey and Other Victims of this Hallucination.

XXX. A GENTLEMAN.

William Penn—The Settlement of Pennsylvania—Remarkable Growth of the Colony—Change of Government—Restoration of Penn—His Death—The Slavery Question—Benjamin Franklin.

XXXI. THE DUTCHMAN'S FIRESIDE.

The Rule of Lovelace at New York—The Dutch Retake the City—It Again Reverts to the English by Patent—Governor Andros and His Unpopular Rule—Leisler Assumes Control—Trouble with New France.

XXXII. FRONTENAC THE FIGHTER.

Frontenac's Attack Upon New York—The Massacre at Schenectady—New York is Fortified by Leisler—Sloughter is Sent to Supersede Him—Leisler's Defense Gets Him Into Trouble—The Governor's Dastardly Taking Off.

XXXIII. THE PEST OF THE PIRATES.

The Rule of Governor Fletcher—Fletcher Succeeded by the Earl of Bellomont—The Commission of Captain Kidd, and How it was Carried Out—Lord Cornbury Becomes Governor—The Expeditions Against Port Royal and Quebec.

CHAPTER.

- XXXIV. THE HOLY VOYAGEURS.
The French and the Discoveries in the Northwest—
Fathers Joliet and Marquette Discover the Source of
the Mississippi and Sail Down the River—Death of
Marquette—The Expedition of La Salle and Henne-
pin—Louisiana Discovered and Named.
- XXXV. THE CHEVALIER LA SALLE.
La Salle Lands on the Shore of Texas—He is Mur-
dered—The Hut in the Wilderness—The Expedition
of d'Iberville—The Settlement of New Orleans, and
the Mississippi—Scheme of John Law—The Massacre
of Chopart—Bienville's Ill-fated Expedition Against
the Chickasaws.
- XXXVI. THE LAND OF GOLD.
California—Spanish Explorers—The Journey of Sir
Francis Drake—The Coast Indians—Expedition of
Espejo—Overthrow of the Jesuits—Oñate and His
Labors—The Missions at the South—The Decline of
Spain and Her Colonies.
- XXXVII. THE CAROLINAS.
Sir Nathaniel Johnson in Carolina—Strategy at Fort
Johnson—Religious Differences—Massacre of 1711—
Uprising in South Carolina—The Yemassee—The
Buccaneers—Rebellion Against the Proprietors.
- XXXVIII. FROM ALLEYS AND BY-WAYS.
How Georgia Came to be Settled—The Emigrants—The
Wesleys and Whitefield—The March of the Slaves—
The Spanish Attack—Georgia as a Royal Province.
- XXXIX. THE CAVALIERS OF VIRGINIA.
Culpepper in Virginia—Governor Effingham—Nicholson
and Andros—The Growth of Industries—Maryland—
The Clergymen of Virginia.
- XL. A REIGN OF TERROR.
The First Trial for Libel in America—The Negro Plot
in 1741—The Burning of Quack and the Hanging of
Ury—The Mingling of Dutch and English in New
York—The Government of Lieutenant-Governor
Clark.

CHAPTER.

XLI. THE CLASH OF ARMS AND IDEAS.

Lord Bellomont's Rule Over New York, New Hampshire and Massachusetts—Dudley's Rule—The French and English War of 1702—Taking of Port Royal—The Lumberers' Difficulties in Maine and New Hampshire.

XLII. "AMERICANS ARE BORN REBELS."

Expedition of Maine and New Hampshire Against the Norridgewocks—The Command of Captain John Lovell—William Drummer in Massachusetts—Whitefield's Revival and Shirley's Administration—Louisburg—The Surrender.

XLIII. "THEY NURSE TREASON WITH THEIR MILK."

The Growing Spirit of Independence—The First Expedition Against Fort Du Quesne—The Colonists for Aggression and Offense—Braddock's Ill-fated Expedition—George Washington's First Appearance—Braddock's Defeat and Death.

XLIV. DESOLATED ACADIA.

French and English Settlements in Nova Scotia—The Rivalry Between the Settlements—Colonel Winslow Drives Out the Acadians—The Pathetic Exodus—Persecution of the Exiles.

XLV. THE LION OR THE LILIES.

Operations Against the French in the North—The Battle at Bloody Pond—The French Take Forts Oswego and William Henry—The English Retake Louisburg—The Battle of Carillon—The English Retake Oswego and Capture Frontenac and Du Quesne.

XLVI. THE PATHS OF GLORY.

The Expedition Against Quebec—The Night Attack and the Fight on the Plains of Abraham—The Death of Montcalm and Wolfe—New Orleans and the Mississippi Valley Given to Spain.

XLVII. A BLOW FOR LIBERTY.

Pontiac, Chief of the Ottawas—Arrival of Rogers' Men at Detroit—Pontiac's Conspiracy—Beginning of War—The Siege of Detroit—The Battle of Bloody Bridge.

CHAPTER.

- XLVIII. CÆSAR HAD HIS BRUTUS.
The Stamp Act—Condition of the Colonies—The Opposition to Taxation—Repeal of the Stamp Act—Refusal of the Assembly to Provide for the Troops Sent Over by England.
- XLIX. THE BOSTON TEA-DRINKERS.
Trouble in Boston—"The Boston Massacre"—The Tea Tax—Attitude of Governor Hutchinson—The Boston "Tea Party"—The Boston Port Bill.
- L. THE BLOOD OF PATRIOTS.
The First Blood of the Revolution—The Men of Bille-rica—Fight at Concord and Lexington—The Siege of Boston—The Battle of Bunker Hill.
- LI. LIBERTY OR DEATH.
Ethan Allen and the Green Mountain Boys—Surrender of Ticonderoga—Washington Chosen Commander-in-Chief—The Lack of Powder—Recall of General Gage—Small Naval Conquests.
- LII. THE PLAINS OF ABRAHAM.
The Designs for the American Conquest of Canada—Montgomery's Move Against Montreal—Arnold's Failure at Quebec—The Union of the Forces—The Second Defeat at Montreal—The Americans Fall Back Upon Ticonderoga and Crown Point.
- LIII. THE PALMETTO LOGS.
The Feeling in England—The Hiring of the Hessians—Attitude of New York—The Conflict with the Southern Colonies—The Defense of Fort Moultrie.
- LIV. THE SONS OF LIBERTY.
The Growth of a Desire for Independence—The Declaration of Independence—The Forming of State Constitutions.
- LV. THE CONTINENTALS.
Washington at New York—Arrival of Thirty-two Thousand British Troops—Overtures for Peace by the British—Battle of Long Island—The Battle of Harlem Heights—Destruction of New York—Battle of White Plains.

CHAPTER.

- LVI. BATTLE FIELD AND BIVOUAC.
 The Jersey Campaign—The Battle of Trenton—The Battle of Princeton—Winter Encampment of Washington at Morristown.
- LVII. THE YEAR OF THE THREE GALLOWS.
 State of the American Army—The Pennsylvania Campaign—The Battle of Brandywine—The "Paoli Massacre"—The British at Philadelphia—The Battle at Germantown—Washington Winters at Valley Forge.
- LVIII. TATTERED CONQUERORS.
 Washington's Camp at Valley Forge—Neglect of Congress—The Conway Cabal—General Steuben—Burgoyne in the North—The Siege of Ticonderoga—The Battle of Oriskany.
- LIX. "ELBOW ROOM."
 The Raid on Bennington—General Gates Given Command at the North—The Battle of Freeman's Farm—Battle of Bemus Heights—Surrender of Burgoyne.
- LX. SABRE AND MUSKET.
 Evacuation of Philadelphia by the British—The Battle of Monmouth Court House—Firing of Bedford and Fairhaven—The Wyoming Massacre—Warfare in the West.
- LXI. THE "BON HOMME RICHARD."
 British Reduction of Georgia—The Destruction of New Haven—The Americans Capture Stony Point—The Great Naval Engagement of John Paul Jones.
- LXII. THE SIX NATIONS.
 Expedition Against the Six Nations—The Civilization of the Indians—Humiliation of the Six Nations—Expedition up the Mississippi from Louisiana—Triumph of Clinton in the South.
- LXIII. "WHOM CAN WE TRUST NOW?"
 Plans of the Two Armies—Siege of Charleston by the English—Capture of the American Army at the South—The Burning of Connecticut Farms—Arrival of Rochambeau—Treason of General Arnold.

CHAPTER.

- LXIV. "I HAVE SENT YOU A GENERAL."
Cornwallis and Gates at the South—The Command of the Southern Force Given to General Green—The Battle of King's Mountain—Battle of Guilford Court House.
- LXV. THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.
Arnold's Expedition—Battle Between Cornwallis and Lafayette—The Siege of Yorktown and Surrender of Cornwallis—The Sacking of New London by Arnold.
- LXVI. THE PLOWSHARE VERSUS THE SWORD.
Condition of the Country at the Close of the Revolution—John Adams Made Minister to England—The Disbanding of the Army—The Call for Delegates to Construct a Constitution.
- LXVII. "FIRST IN WAR, FIRST IN PEACE."
The Forming of the Constitution—Washington Elected President.
- LXVIII. STARTING THE WHEELS OF PROGRESS.
Hamilton's Policy as the First Secretary of State—Increase of American Commerce—The Question of Slavery—Frontier Troubles at the West.
- LXIX. THE COURTLY TIMES OF WASHINGTON.
Death of Franklin—The Humor of Washington's Time—The Policy of Hamilton—The Pennsylvania Whisky Riots.
- LXX. A DEMOCRACY.
The Political Parties of the Young Nation—The Jay Treaty—Election of John Adams to the Presidency—Alien and Sedition Laws—Trouble with France.
- LXXI. A MODERN LUCIFER.
The Fries Insurrection—Selection of the National Capital—Death of Washington—Louisiana—Aaron Burr.
- LXXII. DECATUR'S TRIBUNE.
The Piracy of the Barbary States—War with Tripoli—Exploits of our Naval Heroes—Triumph of America.
- LXXIII. "JEFFERSONIAN SIMPLICITY."
Exploration of the Northwest—Introduction of the Steamboat—Passage of a Law Forbidding the African Slave Trade—The Jeffersonian Policy—Maritime Troubles.

CHAPTER.

LXXIV. WAR AGAIN.

Administration of James Madison—The Southern War Party—Declaration of War and Popular Protest—The Troubles on the Western Frontier—The Chicago Massacre—Surrender of Hull.

LXXV. "NEVER GIVE UP THE SHIP."

War of 1812—The Niagara Campaign—The Battle of Queenstown—Naval Operations—The Six Triumphs of the Americans—Affairs in the West—The Conflict on the Lakes—Perry's Victory.

LXXVI. "BLUE LIGHTS."

The War with the Creeks—Jackson's Campaign—Affairs on the Sea-board—"Yankee Strategy"—The Treaty of Peace.

LXXVII. A COUNTRY WITHOUT A CAPITAL.

Jackson's Campaign Among the Creeks—Discouragements on the Northern Frontier—The Battle of Lundy's Lane—The War on the Sea-coast for 1814—The Capture and Destruction of the City of Washington—Vicissitudes at the South—The Battle of New Orleans.

LXXVIII. A TRANSIENT AMIABILITY.

The Era of Good Feeling—War with Algiers—Financial Condition of the Country—The First Seminole War—The Missouri Compromise.

LXXIX. THE SECOND ADAMS.

Monroe's Administration—Election to the Presidency of John Quincy Adams—The Assertion of State Supremacy in Georgia—Tariff Disputes—Andrew Jackson Elected President—The Financial Crisis of 1837.

LXXX. FICTION AND TRUTH.

The Literary History of the Last Fifty Years—The Abolitionists.

LXXXI. A HOUSE DIVIDED AGAINST ITSELF.

Second Seminole War—Election of Van Buren—Financial Depression—Election of William Henry Harrison—The Dorr Rebellion—The Mormons—Annexation of Texas.

CHAPTER.

- LXXXII. THE SAD PLAIN OF MONTEREY.
The Administration of Polk, and the War with Mexico—Various Severe Battles—Conquest of California and New Mexico—Occupation of the City of Mexico—Treaty of Peace—Birth of the Free Soil Party and Election of Taylor.
- LXXXIII. GOLD AND IRON CHAINS.
Death of Taylor, and Administration of Millard Fillmore—Discovery of Gold in California—Slavery Agitation—The Trouble in Kansas.
- LXXXIV. THE TRUTH GOES MARCHING ON.
Sacking of Lawrence—John Brown and the Destruction of Ossawatimie—Election of Buchanan—Assault on Sumner—The Mormons—Election of Lincoln.
- LXXXV. "WE ARE COMING, FATHER ABRAHAM."
Secession—The Southern Confederacy—Attack on Fort Sumpter—The First Call for Troops—The Three Years' Enlistment—The Battle of Bull Run.
- LXXXVI. THE UNION FOREVER.
Attitude of Foreign Powers—Bombardment of Forts at Hatteras Inlet—Conquest of Charleston Harbor—The Campaign West of the Alleghanies—Grant at Forts Henry and Donelson—The War in Missouri.
- LXXXVII. WITH SHOT AND SHELL.
The Capture of New Orleans—Fight Between the "Monitor" and the "Merrimac."
- LXXXVIII. SHILOH AND ITS SEQUEL.
The Campaign at Island No. 10—The Battle of Shiloh—Siege of Corinth—The Conflict at the East Under McClellan—Siege of Yorktown—The Battle of Williamsburg—The Battle of Seven Pines—Battle of Chickahominy—Battle of Malvern Hill.
- LXXXIX. CLOSE OF THE PENINSULA CAMPAIGN.
The Army of Virginia Under the Command of Pope—General Halleck Made General-in-Chief—Battle of Cedar Mountain—McClellan Leaves the Peninsula—Battle of Groveton—Loss of Generals Stevens and Kearney.

CHAPTER.

- XC. THE BLOODY FIELD OF ANTIETAM.
Lee's Army Moves Northward—The Battle of South Mountain—The Battle of Antietam.
- XCI. "ALL US NIGGAHS IS FREE!"
Burnside Made Commander-in-Chief of the Army of the Potomac—The Battle of Fredericksburg—The Emancipation Proclamation—Battles of Perryville, Iuka, Corinth, Murfreesboro and Chancellorsville.
- XCII. THE DEADLY PARALLELS.
The Battle of Gettysburg and the Siege of Vicksburg.
- XCIII. THE MARTYRS.
Why the War Did Not End After Gettysburg—The New York Riots—Atrocities in the South—Southern Prison Pens.
- XCIV. THE SWAMP ANGEL.
The Siege of Charleston—Dupont's Defeat—Gilmore's Siege—The "Swamp Angel"—Morgan's Raids.
- XCV. "THE RIVER OF THE DEAD."
Campaign at the West Between Generals Rosecrans and Bragg—Battle of Chickamauga—Battle of Chattanooga—The Sanitary and Christian Commissioners.
- XCVI. "FORWARD BY THE LEFT FLANK."
Grant Given Absolute Command—The Battle of the Wilderness—"Forward by the Left Flank"—Second Battle of Cold Harbor.
- XCVII. THE CONFEDERATE CRUISERS.
The Confederate Privateers—Fight Between the "Kearsarge" and "Alabama"—The International Court of Arbitration—Sherman and the Western Campaign.
- XCVIII. "AFTER YOU, PILOT!"
Sherman's March to Atlanta—The Bombardment of Mobile—Destruction of the "Albemarle."
- XCIX. FROM ATLANTA TO THE SEA.
The March from Atlanta to the Sea—The Entrance to Savannah—The Siege of Richmond—Burnside's Blunder—The Burning of Chambersburg.

CHAPTER.

- C. WHIRLING THROUGH WINCHESTER.
Sheridan and the Shenandoah Campaign—Sherman's March Northward from Savannah—The Burning of Columbia.
- CI. "OH, CAPTAIN! MY CAPTAIN!"
Closing of the Virginia Campaign—The Evacuation of Richmond—Surrender of Lee at Appomattox Court House—Assassination of President Lincoln.
- CII. "YE CANNOT SERVE TWO MASTERS."
Administration of Andrew Johnson—Capture of Jefferson Davis—Reconstruction—Impeachment of President Johnson—Purchase of Alaska—Returning Prosperity to the Union.
- CIII. A HUNDRED YEARS OF LIBERTY.
Administration of Grant—The Ku-Klux Klan—The Chicago Fire—The Custer Massacre—The Panic of 1873—The Centennial Exposition—Administration of President Hayes—Railroad Riots of 1877.
- CIV. THE OLD HAYMARKET.
Election and Death of President James A. Garfield—Administration of Arthur—The Anarchists of Chicago.
- CV. CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM.
President Cleveland's Administration—Civil-Service Reform and Pension Bills—Many Noted Union Generals Pass Away—Death of General Grant—Prominent Events of Four Years of Democratic Power.
- CVI. PRESIDENT HARRISON'S INAUGURATION.
The Members of the Cabinet and the Foreign Ministers—The Celebration of the Centennial Anniversary of Washington's Inauguration—The Opening of Oklahoma Territory—The Samoan Disaster.
- CVII. THE GREAT CALAMITY.
Bursting of a Reservoir in the Conemaugh Valley, Pennsylvania—Appalling Rush of Water Down the Valley—Destruction of Johnstown—Thousands of Lives Lost and Millions of Dollars' Worth of Property Destroyed.

CHAPTER.

CVIII. THROUGH ONE ADMINISTRATION.

The Four Years of President Harrison's Term—Complications with Italy and Great Britain—Reciprocity and the Pan-American Congress—Second Election of Cleveland.

CIX. THE PASSING OF A GREAT MAN.

The Death of James Gillespie Blaine—Election to Congress—Candidate for the Presidency—Reciprocity and the Pan-American Congress—The Grief of the Nation.

CX. A MID-PACIFIC REVOLUTION.

How the Inhabitants of the Sandwich Islands Threw Off the Burdensome Yoke of Monarchy—The Embassy to the United States—Seeking Annexation to Uncle Sam's Family of Commonwealths.

CXI. THE CROWNING GLORY OF THE CENTURY.

The World's Columbian Exposition at Chicago—Our Country's History 400 Years Old—The Magnificent Site and Buildings—Objects of Interest.

CXII. PRESIDENT OR GOVERNOR?

Administration of President Cleveland—The New Tariff—The Income Tax—The Coal Strike—The Coxey Movement—The Pullman Boycott—The Silver Question.

CXIII. OF THE MAKING OF GOOD BOOKS, ETC.

The Literature of the Last Thirty Years.

CXIV. THE SUPREME COURT OF THE UNITED STATES.

Its Organization and Duties—The Lives of the Chief Justices.

CXV. THE UNITED STATES NAVY.

Its Old Ascendancy—The Invention of the Monitor—The Deterioration of the Navy, After the Civil War—Appointment of the Advisory Board—The New Navy—Improvements in Naval Artillery—Organization of the Navy Department—Sketch of John Ericsson—Uses of the Navy.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

George Washington,	—	(Frontispiece.)	PAGE.
Columbus Frightens the Indians, etc.,	—	—	30
Viking Boat, Found in Denmark,	—	—	34
Columbus and His Son Begging,	—	—	35
Columbus—The Yanez Portrait,	—	—	39
Amerigo Vespucci,	—	—	40
Sebastian Cabot at Labrador,	—	—	44
A Spanish Soldier,	—	—	50
Burial of De Soto,	—	—	51
Spanish Armor,	—	—	51
Wolpi,	—	—	52
John Adams,	—	—	59
Thomas Jefferson,	—	—	87
A Puritan Type,	—	—	92
Miles Standish Filling Rattlesnake Skin with Bullets,	—	—	98
James Madison,	—	—	125
James Monroe,	—	—	147
Charles I.,	—	—	152
John Quincy Adams,	—	—	155
Charles II. of England,	—	—	159
Andrew Jackson,	—	—	172
Benjamin Franklin,	—	—	196
William Penn's Residence,	—	—	203
Martin Van Buren,	—	—	217
William Henry Harrison,	—	—	240
A Cavalier of Virginia,	—	—	252
A Moravian Settlement,	—	—	256
Frozen In,	—	—	265
John Tyler,	—	—	272
George Washington in His Youth,	—	—	273
Quebec,	—	—	287
James Knox Polk,	—	—	295
Patrick Henry,	—	—	299
Building Where the Tea Plot was Hatched,	—	—	307
Bunker Hill Monument,	—	—	315
A Spouting Geyser,	—	—	317
Washington Taking Command of the Continental Army,	—	—	319
Zachary Taylor,	—	—	325
Signing the Declaration of Independence,	—	—	338
Old Liberty Bell,	—	—	344
House in which the Declaration of Independence was Signed,	—	—	345
Independence Hall,	—	—	348
Washington Crossing the Delaware,	—	—	354

ILLUSTRATIONS—CONTINUED.

	PAGE.
Washington on the Hudson,	356
Marquis Marie Joseph Paul de Lafayette,	362
Baron Von Steuben,	366
The Assault on Stony Point,	382
Millard Fillmore,	387
Escape of Benedict Arnold,	398
Washington's Treasure Chest,	422
Franklin's Grave,	427
Franklin Pierce,	430
Washington's Grave,	437
Duel Between Burr and Hamilton,	439
The White House, Washington,	447
Brock's Monuments,	457
Indian Burial in Tree-tops,	469
The Fort at Pensacola,	472
Fall of Table Rock,	482
Henry Wadsworth Longfellow,	494
Attack upon Fort King,	503
Border of Great Salt Lake,	506
Oldest House in the United States,	513
Catching Wild Horses in Texas,	516
James Buchanan,	519
Salt Lake City and Mormon Temple,	525
Abraham Lincoln,	527
Capture of John Brown in the Engine House,	531
Jefferson Davis in 1861,	535
The Confederate Flag,	538
Stonewall Jackson,	540
Birthplace of General Grant,	545
Federal Iron-clad River Gunboat,	547
Admiral Farragut and His Victorious Squadron,	551
Admiral David Farragut,	552
General Benjamin F. Butler,	553
The "Merrimac" Sinking the "Cumberland,"	558
General Robert E. Lee,	563
A Railroad Battery,	568
United States Military Telegraph Wagon,	582
General Pickett's Charge Against the Union Forces at Gettysburg,	589
Gunboats Passing Before Vicksburg,	591
View of a Cotton Chute,	592
Horace Greeley,	596
The Tombs Prison, New York City,	598
Flight of Negroes from Fort Pillow,	601
Bombardment of Fort Sumter by the United Fleet Under Admiral Dupont	603
Picking Cotton,	622
General W. F. Sherman,	625
Lieutenant Cushing's Attack on the "Albemarle,"	628

ILLUSTRATIONS--CONTINUED.

	PAGE.
Sheridan's Famous Ride from Winchester to Cedar Creek, -	635
Sheridan's Attack upon Lee's Army at Appomattox Court House,	643
Jefferson Davis in 1888, - - - - -	645
Andrew Johnson, - - - - -	646
View of Salt Lake City, - - - - -	650
General Ulysses S. Grant, - - - - -	653
Massacre of General Custer and Command on the Little Big Horn River, - - - - -	659
Denver, Twenty Years Ago, - - - - -	659
The Maid of the Mist Going Through Whirlpool Rapids, -	661
Rutherford B. Hayes, - - - - -	663
James A. Garfield, - - - - -	667
Chester A. Arthur, - - - - -	669
The Haymarket Riot, - - - - -	671
Grover Cleveland, - - - - -	675
The Johnstown Disaster, - - - - -	705
Bird's-eye View of the United States, - - - - -	712
James G. Blaine, - - - - -	735
Benjamin Harrison, - - - - -	769
Battle Ships--Ancient and Modern, - - - - -	789

THE RIVER TIME.

BENJAMIN F. TAYLOR.

Oh! a wonderful stream is the river Time,
As it runs through the realm of tears,
With a faultless rhythm and a musical rhyme
And a broader sweep and a surge sublime,
As it blends in the ocean of years!

How the winters are drifting like flakes of snow,
And the summers, like birds, between,
And the years in the sheaf, how they come and go
On the river's breast, with its ebb and its flow,
As it glides in the shadow and sheen!

There's a magical isle up the river Time,
Where the softest of winds are playing,
There's a cloudless sky and a tropical clime,
And a song as sweet as a vesper chime,
And the Junes with the roses are straying.

And the name of this isle is the "Long Ago,"
And we bury our treasures there,
There are brows of beauty, and bosoms of snow,
There are heaps of dust—oh! we loved them so—
There are trinkets and tresses of hair.

There are fragments of songs that nobody sings,
There are parts of an infant's prayer,
There's a lute unswept, and a harp without strings,
There are broken vows and pieces of rings,
And the dresses that *she* used to wear!

There are hands that are waved when the fairy shore
By the fitful mirage is lifted in air,
And we sometimes hear, through the turbulent roar,
Sweet voices we heard in the days gone before,
When the wind down the river was fair.

Oh! remembered for aye be that blessed isle,
All the day of our life until night,
And when evening glows with its beautiful smile,
And our eyes are closing in slumbers awhile,
May the Greenwood of soul be in sight.

LIST OF PRESIDENTS AND VICE-PRESIDENTS.

No.	PRESIDENT. Term of Office.	STATE.	VICE-PRESIDENT.
1	George Washington, - - Two terms, 1789-97.	Virginia. - -	John Adams.
2	John Adams, - - - One term, 1797-1801.	Massachusetts.	Thomas Jefferson.
3	Thomas Jefferson, - - Two terms, 1801-09.	Virginia. - -	Aaron Burr. George Clinton.
4	James Madison, - - - Two terms, 1809-17.	Virginia. - -	George Clinton. Elbridge Gerry.
5	James Monroe, - - - Two terms, 1817-25.	Virginia. - -	Daniel D. Tompkins.
6	John Q. Adams, - - - One term, 1825-29.	Massachusetts.	John C. Calhoun.
7	Andrew Jackson, - - - Two terms, 1829-37.	Tennessee. -	John C. Calhoun. Martin Van Buren.
8	Martin Van Buren, - - - One term, 1837-41.	New York. -	Richard M. Johnson.
9	William H. Harrison, - One month, 1841.	Ohio. - - -	John Tyler.
10	John Tyler, - - - - Three years and 11 months, 1841-45.	Virginia.	
11	James K. Polk, - - - One term, 1845-49.	Tennessee. -	George M. Dallas.
12	Zachary Taylor, - - - One year and 4 months, 1849-50.	Louisiana. -	Millard Fillmore.
13	Millard Fillmore, - - Two years and 8 months, 1850-53.	New York.	
14	Franklin Pierce, - - - One term, 1853-57.	New Hampshire.	William R. King.
15	James Buchanan, - - - One term, 1857-61.	Pennsylvania.	J. C. Breckinridge.

NO.	PRESIDENT. Term of Office.	STATE.	VICE-PRESIDENT.
16	Abraham Lincoln, One term and 1 month.	Illinois.	Hannibal Hamlin. Andrew Johnson.
17	Andrew Johnson, Three years and 11 months.	Tennessee.	
18	Ulysses S. Grant, Two terms, 1869-77.	Illinois.	Schnyler Colfax. Henry Wilson.
19	Rutherford B. Hayes, One term, 1877-81.	Ohio.	William A. Wheeler,
20	James A. Garfield, Six and a half months, 1881.	Ohio.	Chester A. Arthur.
21	Chester A. Arthur, Three years, 5 and a half months, 1881-85.	New York.	
22	Grover Cleveland, One term, 1885-89.	New York.	Thos. A. Hendricks.
23	Benjamin Harrison, 1889-93.	Indiana.	Levi P. Morton.
24	Grover Cleveland, 1893-	New York.	Adlai E. Stevenson.



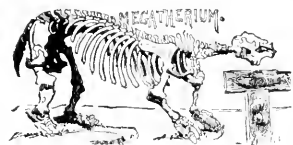
COLUMBUS FRIGHTENS THE INDIANS INTO LENDING HIM ASSISTANCE BY FORETELLING AN ECLIPSE OF THE MOON--ONE OF THEIR DEITIES.

CHAPTER I.

Mastodons and Mystery.

EARLIEST INHABITANTS—THE MOUND-BUILDERS—THE AMERICAN

INDIANS.



HE plans of God are very wide. No nation may have the right to say, "We are the people, and wisdom shall die with us." Traces are left of so many great and perished nations, that we are constantly reminded that a thousand years is but as a day in His sight, and that the work and progress we are so proud of may disappear and leave but little hint of us by which the coming race may guess what we were like.

In the skeletons of the huge animals called the Mastodons and Mammoths, which once roved this country, and which have ceased to exist for so many thousand years, there are found flint arrow-heads, which must have been made by men who lived in that time, and by which these wild and terrible creatures were slain. Besides the many animals which belonged entirely to that age, and which there is nothing like now, there were many then upon this continent which we read of now only in foreign countries. The monkey was here in what we call United States, and the camel and rhinoceros. What the character was of the people who lived at that time it is impossible to guess.

The first race which has left any distinct traces of itself was the Mound-builders, and it hardly seems as if they could have lived at the time of the Mastodon, for they made pictures of all the things about them, and among those pictures there is nothing which resembles these huge animals. This race of men was not savage, in one sense of the word. They worked hard, a thing which the savage seldom does. They had skill, and loved the beautiful. They are called the Mound-builders, because they have left behind them thousands of immense mounds; some curved, some square, some in the shape of a snake. Sometimes these earthworks have from fourteen to sixteen miles of embankment. Some look as if they may have been the dwelling-places

of their kings. Others seem as if they may have protected temples or altars where they worshipped.

This people understood the smelting of ores, and mining. Their pottery was far from rude, and their implements of warfare very serviceable. They buried their great men under huge pyramids of dirt, but the common people, to judge from the great stack of bones which had been found in parts of the country, were doubtless thrown together and left in the open air. At the time they lived, this country must have been thickly populated. It must have taken millions of men to do what they did. No one can guess what became of them, or why they left the possessions upon which they had spent so much time and labor. They disappeared many years before the American Indians roamed through our forests.

The American Indians, as the European discoverers of this country found them, were not the race that we know. They were said to be well formed, winning, gentle and trustful. They were gracious in their speech and friendly in their manner, with soft, brown bodies, and delicate movements. They had little strength for work, but great endurance in running. Here they lived, free as birds, without need of much work, with no cares, no sorrows except natural ones, until the civilized warriors drove them west, and ever west, setting an example of treachery and cruelty which the Indians were not slow to follow.

FOR FURTHER READING.

HISTORY—Squire and Davis' "Ancient Monuments."

Baldwin's "Ancient America."

Foster's "Prehistoric Races of America."

Drake's "Aboriginal Races of North America."

Jones' "Mound Builders of Tennessee."

Shaler's "Time of the Mammoths."

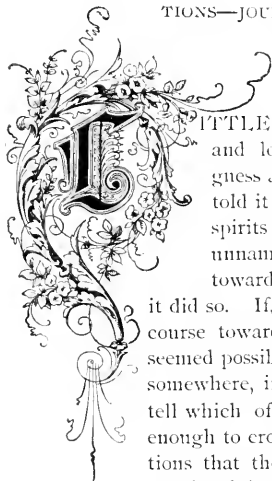
"American Naturalist," iv: 148.

FICTION—Matthew's "Behemoth: A Legend of the Mound-Builders."

CHAPTER II.

The Legendary Century.

THE FIRST DISCOVERERS OF AMERICA—MYTHS, LEGENDS AND TRADITIONS—JOURNEY OF THE NORSEMEN.



LITTLE children, standing on the shores of Europe and looking toward the west, could make no guess at what lay beyond the water. They were told it was the "dark water," from which all the spirits and goblins came, things unknown and unnamable. The winds seemed always to blow toward the west. Even the mariners believed that it did so. If, by any chance, a sailor drifted out of his course toward the west, he was filled with alarm. It seemed possible to him that the waters might run off, somewhere, into a terrible nothingness. It is hard to tell which of the nations first found men courageous enough to cross these unknown waters. There are traditions that the Chinese did so, and that these Buddhists wandered down to the California shore, and went deep into the country that we now know as Mexico. There are traditions, too, that the Breton fishermen cast their lines upon the Newfoundland coast. It is certainly true that North American Indians have been met with whose languages were mixed with French. The Welshmen also claim that a number of their countrymen came to North America and settled there. The traditions concerning this are peculiarly romantic. Two brothers, David and Medoc, quarreled for the throne of Wales. The younger gave up his right, and, fitting out a ship, sailed west. The next year he returned, and said that he had found a fruitful country. He called upon his friends to follow him, and filled ten ships with men, women and children. They sailed away, and were never heard of again. Five times in American writings there are references to them. They are described as a race of white Indians,

using many Welsh words, and having a manuscript copy of the Bible, in the Welsh language, with them. The last reference to them speaks of their living among the upper courses of the Missonri.

But the journeys of the Northmen to America are well known. These Northmen were splendid seamen, and splendid fighters. They had been all over the known world. They had frightened even the great emperor, Charlemagne, in France, and had put their horses in his palace. Wherever they went they seemed to conquer, until at last they were driven from Scotland. Then, on the melancholy island of Iceland, they made their republic. Two-thirds of the year they lived in twilight. Books were their consolation, the sea their play-ground. It was no wonder that they went this way and that, wherever their fancy prompted, and wherever they felt they could fight with weaker



A VIKING BOAT, FOUND IN DENMARK.

men. They discovered Greenland, and settled a village there; then in strange, strong, if not fleet ships, went coasting further south. It was Bjarne Herjulfson, with his crew, who first coasted—driven by adverse winds—along the coast of Narragansett Bay, Newfoundland

and Nova Scotia. He went back to Iceland with the tales of what he had seen. "What," cried Erik the Red, a wild Norseman, who had been banished from his native country for murder, "you saw a new country like that, with green fields and trees, and never put a foot on it?" He talked so much, and so long and loud on the subject, that his son, Leif Erikson, made up his mind to find out what kind of lands these were which were so much talked about. He bought Bjarne's ship from him, took thirty-five good seamen, and went far away to the southwest. They landed in Newfoundland, which they called Helluland, and in Nova Scotia, which they termed Markland. They looked about these countries a little, gave them names, and sailed away, and were two days at sea before they saw land again. Then they sailed into a sound. It was a beautiful place. There were larger salmon there than they had ever seen, and grass, which looked wonderful to these men from a barren country. They found luscious grapes growing wild, grapes from which wine could be made with wonderful ease, and a German among them named it Vinland. We have changed the name very little. We call it Martha's Vineyard now. This was in the year 1000.



COLUMBUS AND HIS SON BEGGING.

When Leif Erikson reached home, his brother made the complaint that he had brought home much too little news. "You may go in my ship, brother, to Vinland, if you like," said Leif, and thus Thorbald, in 1002, went to Vinland, and stayed there three years. It is thought that the skeleton in armor, found near Fall River, in Massachusetts, in 1831, was that of Thorbald, who was killed by a poisoned arrow from Indians. Skraellings, the Norsemen called the Indians, because they were so scrawny, compared to themselves; and, indeed, there are traditions, among the eastern Indians, of the great, fair giants, who had come to the eastern shore, which shows that there must have been a great difference in the stature of the Norsemen and the red men. In 1005, the last son of Erik the Red started to Vinland, to try and fetch the body of his brother Thorbald. His ship was blown out of its course, and he never reached his destination. Then came Thorfinn Karlsfenn, with his handsome wife, Gudrid, and with them one hundred and fifty-one men and seven women. For three years they lived at Vinland, and, perhaps, built the tower that still stands in Newport, and wrote the inscriptions on the blocks near the Taunton river. The constant fights with the Indians decided them at last to leave their beautiful bay and go back to Iceland. They carried with them little Snorre, the first child of European blood born in America. Snorre was three years old when they took him back to Iceland, a little blue-eyed boy with golden hair. There are stories of other journeys by the Norsemen, in the years 1011 and 1121, and accounts of their going as far south, along the Atlantic coast, as to what we now call Florida. It is believed that the Welshmen came later than this, in 1170. The tower which stands at Newport, which is the only substantial monument that the Norsemen left of their visits, is low and round. It has two windows and a fire-place, and the cement with which the stones are put together is still strong, and but for the fact that the roof is gone, it could hardly be called a ruin. It is covered with ivy now, and serves the purpose of amusing the chance tourist. Longfellow has made this tower the subject of his poem, "The Skeleton in Armor." Perhaps it was Thorfinn Karlsfenn who was his hero, and the "viking wild."

FOR FURTHER READING.

- HISTORY**—Leland's "Fusang, Discovery of America by Chinese."
 "America not Discovered by Columbus."
 Bowen's "America Discovered by the Welsh."
 Anderson's "Discovery of America by Norsemen."
 Beal's "Buddhist Records of the Western World."
FICTION—Ballantyne's "Norsemen of the West."
POETRY—Whittier's "Norsemen."
 Longfellow's "Skeleton in Armor."
 Montgomery's "Vinland."

CHAPTER III.

The Dreamer of Genoa.

COLUMBUS AND HIS VOYAGES—AMERIGO VESPUCCI—THE CABOTS.



LEAVING cloth or combing wool patiently in Genoa, there lived in the fifteenth century an Italian by the name of Columbo. In the year 1435 his son was born, whom he named Cristoforo. Perhaps the comb of wool in his dull shop used to dream of the sea, and the delights and freedom of it. There could have been little other reason for his sending the little Columbus to school, at ten, to study navigation. At fourteen, this restless Italian boy went to sea, and from that time till he died, he never left it, unless, indeed, it was to draw charts for other seamen. He loved books, too, and read much. He read the books of great scholars, and it is more than possible that some of these planted in his mind the idea that the world was round—an idea which was to double Christian civilization. Christopher went on numerous voyages with the celebrated admiral of his time, who bore the same family name, Columbo, and it is thought he may have traveled with a certain wild corsair, named Colon. The years between 1470 and 1484 Christopher spent in Portugal. Everyone was talking about the discovery of new lands. The Portuguese seamen were going down the African coast. Prince Henry was making presents of islands to his navigators, and he gave the island of Porto Santo, of the Madeira group, to a man named Prestrello. Columbus married the daughter of this man, and on the island of Porto Santo was born Columbus' son, Diego.

It was not the children alone who wondered about the great, dark water. The Spanish seamen were vastly curious. It seemed to them that the earth was a flat surface, with this great river of water running

around the land. Like the children, they were terrified by the thought of what might be on the other side. A few scholars thought that it might be a sphere, but they never dreamed that it could be large enough for more than one continent; so it seemed quite simple to them, that if it was a sphere, it would be possible, by sailing westward, to reach Asia—the land from which the luxurious merchants of Spain and Portugal brought their richest wares; the land from which the spices came, the silks and the inlaid work, the gold and jewels.



COLUMBUS.

The Yanez portrait, Madrid Library.

Certain of these learned men, among them Toscanelli, the Italian, corresponded with Columbus. They drew up charts with his help, and laid out the plan by which one might cross into India, and Tartary, and Cathay. Columbus was a great dreamer, and these plans filled him with wild visions. He thought of nothing and talked of nothing else. He talked with sailors who had found pine trees washed upon the Madeira coast, where no pine trees grew, and those who had seen tropical caue

stalks upon the European beaches. He was restless and excited; he could never keep still. He even went to Iceland, and it is possible that he talked there with the descendants of the men who had been at Vineland. Gudrid, too, had been at Rome, and it may be that she left traditions there of the three years which she had spent in the beautiful country across the water. Though Columbus could interest many people with



AMERIGO VESPUCCI.

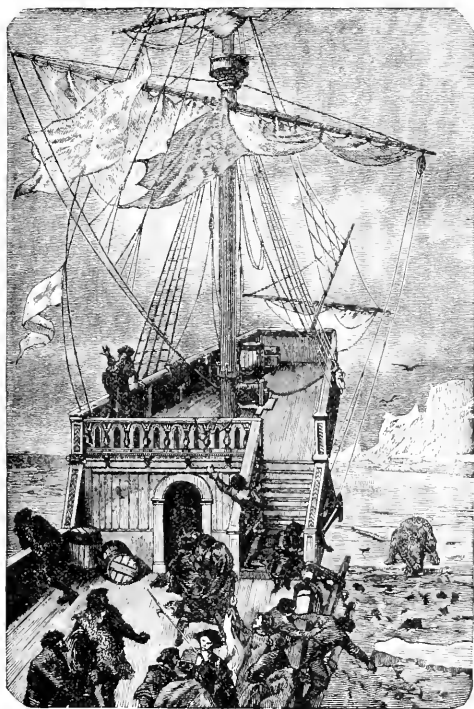
tales of all he fancied, and all he hoped, it was difficult to win the hearing of those who could give him help. It is said that he went, or sent, to King Henry VII, of England, with the hope of gaining his assistance. It is almost certain that he tried to get the help of the King of Portugal, and it is possible that he sought the aid of

some of the cities of his own country, Italy. At last his wife died. He took his boy, Diego, and seems to have wandered about, in a desolate way, for a year. One day he went with Diego to the Franciscan convent of Santa Maria de la Rabida, asking for bread. He interested the prior, and the prior in turn interested a gentleman of importance, Martin Alonzo Pinzon, and he carried letters of credit with him from these persons to Cordova, where the king and queen were. But King Ferdinand was busy, and it was a long time before he could listen to Columbus. For seven years, or at the very least five, Columbus hung around the Spanish court. The courtiers laughed at him, and Isabella and Ferdinand seemed to have little confidence in his plans. At last, a day came when Columbus was treated with such contempt that he burst into a sudden fit of rage, flung himself out of the court, and taking to his horse, rode toward France. Isabella, fearing both that the kingdom might have lost a good thing, and that Columbus' feelings were severely hurt, sent after him. He was brought back, and in three months an expedition was ready to sail, part of which was fitted out at the credit of Isabella's own kingdom, Castile. It was not very strange that the sailors were afraid to go. How could they tell what they were running into? They had to be driven to their task by force; but at last Columbus left with three ships—the Santa Maria, the Pinta, and the Nina. The Santa Maria was ninety-six feet long and carried sixty-six seamen. It was decked all over, and had four masts—two with square sails and two with lateen sails. The other vessels were smaller and without decks. They all carried provisions for a year, and Columbus had with him an agreement signed by Ferdinand and Isabella, by which he was made High Admiral and Viceroy in these lands, and given one-eighth of the possible profits in return for the eighth of the costs which he advanced. Columbus hardly knew how to show his happiness. He vowed that if there were any profits, they should be used to free the Holy Sepulchre from the Moslems; so, with much hope, and many prayers, he left with his discontented sailors, leaving his son in care of the royal household.

It was on the third of August, 1492, that Columbus and his men sailed from Palos. In a month they had reached the Canary Islands. After that they passed many desolate days on the water, with the sailors discontented at day and weeping at night. It took all of the tact that Columbus had at his command to quiet them. Once the sailors plotted to throw Columbus overboard, but he was keen and watchful, and, above all, a man of prayer, and his stern dignity of character held them in

check. At length, however, he was obliged to tell them that he would turn back if they saw no land within three days. The anxiety which he felt can be imagined. Was it possible that he would be forced to give up his long-nursed hopes and forego the glory of discovery, and all because of a handful of fearful and ignorant sailors? But the outcome was as strange as a miracle. In the morning of the third day, a sailor, standing aloft with his seaman's glass, espied land. The joy-guns were fired, to let the men upon the other vessels know of this wondrous fact. They sailed all day toward land. Anchor was cast over night, and the following morning they rowed Columbus to the shore, with music and waving banners, and, highest of all, the great flag of Spain, all red and gold. With him came his captains, with green flags, which bore the cross upon them. The island he called Guanahani. It is thought it may have been the island we call San Salvador, but this is not certain. It was a flat island, with a shallow lake in the centre, and not especially inviting, so the men sailed on and visited Cuba, Hayti and other of the West India islands. He did not doubt but that he had found the eastern extremity of Cathay.

He was not a little proud when he went back to Spain, and the reason that he stopped at Portugal may have been to let the king know all that he had lost, in not giving him a chance to find these new dominions for him. In Spain, he was received with much honor, and, when he started back for the new land, he had seventeen vessels and 1,500 men. On this journey he discovered the Windward Islands, part of Jamaica and Porto Rico, and founded his colony in Hayti. Hayti he called Little Spain, or Hispanola. In the winter of 1497-98, Amerigo Vespucci, a friend of Columbus, succeeded in some manner in obtaining ships, by which he reached the mainland of the new continent. Everyone was going to the "New Spain" who could possibly get there. All of the men who had laughed at Columbus before, seemed now to be trying to get as much of his territory and honor away from him as possible. Those who had sneered, "Look at the Admiral of Mosquitoland," and who had made light of Columbus' discovery because he brought home so little treasure, were, nevertheless, glad to start out to find what they could. If Amerigo made this voyage, as he said he did, he touched upon the mainland before any other Spaniard. In the same year John Cabot, a merchant, born at Venice, but living in England, also went to America, and touched upon the coast of Labrador. Sebastian Cabot, a son of John, a year later (1498) sailed with two ships and three hundred men. In his second voyage, he became persuaded



SEBASTIAN CABOT AT LABRADOR.

that the land which they had found was not Asia. He discovered Hudson's Bay upon his third voyage. He loved the sea always, and lived upon it as long as he had strength. Meanwhile, Columbus, his mind still filled with visions, and believing that he was inspired of God, went upon his third journey. With his six ships, he reached the mainland of South America. Touching at his colony of Hispanola, he found his people quarrelling bitterly, and much dissatisfied with his government as admiral. He was arrested by Bobadilla, a Spanish commissioner, and carried on board ship in chains. These he wore till he reached Spain, although his captors would willingly have taken them off. The chains had the effect which he had expected; the monarchs were ashamed, the people horrified. He was released. He wished then to keep his vow, to wrest the Holy Sepulchre from the infidels, but Ferdinand and Isabella would not permit him to do so. Then he asked to go once more to America. He was given four vessels, and took with him his brother, and his younger son, Fernando. By the time they had reached the American coast, Columbus was ill. He lay upon the deck, and watched the land as the ship sailed around by Honduras, for they had passed beyond the islands. He tried several times to found a colony, but the Indians were shy and crafty, and very naturally resented the invasion of their land. Two of his ships were lost. His crew mutinied, and no one would send him any relief. At last he went back to Spain, only to find his friend, Isabella, dead. He died on May 20, 1506, with the chains he had worn upon his return to Spain hung by his bed-side. They were put in his coffin, and he was buried with the monument: "To Castile and Leon, Columbus gave a new world." About two centuries after that his remains were carried to the cathedral of Havana, that they might lie in the soil of the new world which he had found.

It was better for his peace of mind that he never knew that the land he reached after so much suffering of mind and body, was to bear the name of another man. But, after all, justice will always be done in the Lord's good time, and, in the minds of everyone, America is the monument of Columbus, and not of Amerigo Vespucci.

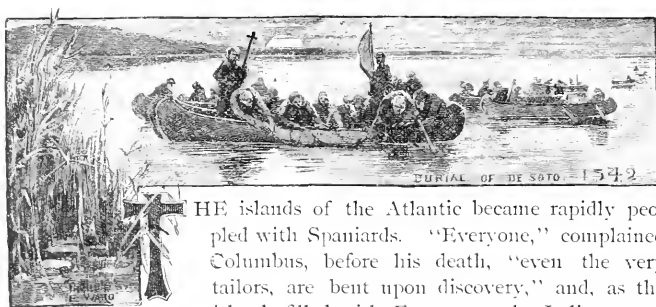
FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY—Prescott's "Conquest of Mexico."
 BIOGRAPHY—W. Irving's "Columbus."
 W. Irving's "Companions of Columbus."
 Dexter's "Letters of Columbus and Vespucci."
 TRAVELS—Hakluyt's "Voyages."
 Kohl's "Discoverers of the East Coast of America."
 FICTION—Bird's "Calavar" and "Infidel."
 Wallace's "Fair God."
 POETRY—Barlow's "Colombiad."
 Lowell's "Columbus."
 Rogers' "Columbus."
 Sir Aubrey De Vere's "Sonnets on Columbus."

CHAPTER IV.

Across the Dark Water.

PONCE DE LEON—THE FOUNTAIN OF YOUTH—THE DISCOVERY OF THE
SOUTH SEA BY BALEOA—DE SOTO—HIS DEATH.



THE islands of the Atlantic became rapidly peopled with Spaniards. "Everyone," complained Columbus, before his death, "even the very tailors, are bent upon discovery," and, as the islands filled with Europeans, the Indians were crowded out. The manner in which they were killed, and the awful sufferings they endured at the hands of men who called themselves Christians, is told most pathetically in the chronicles of Las Casas, one of the few friends which these unhappy people had. They were carried to Spain as slaves, or worked with cruelty upon the new possessions in the Atlantic. The tender-hearted old man, Las Casas, made the mistake, in his firm defence of the Indians, of advising the young king, who then reigned over Spain, to let each resident in Hispanola bring a dozen negro slaves from the African coast; and it was thus, in about 1518, that negro slavery was first introduced in America.

Juan Ponce De Leon, a gay and courteous cavalier, who had been with Columbus on his second voyage, had made up his mind to go to the countries of the new world upon his own account. It was in 1513 that he set sail, with three caravels well fitted with men. He had been a brave soldier and a very active man, and hated, as all such men must do, the thought of growing old. His ambition was to maintain his youth, and he was filled with the pleasant stories of some luscious fountain of clear water in the new world, from which all men might

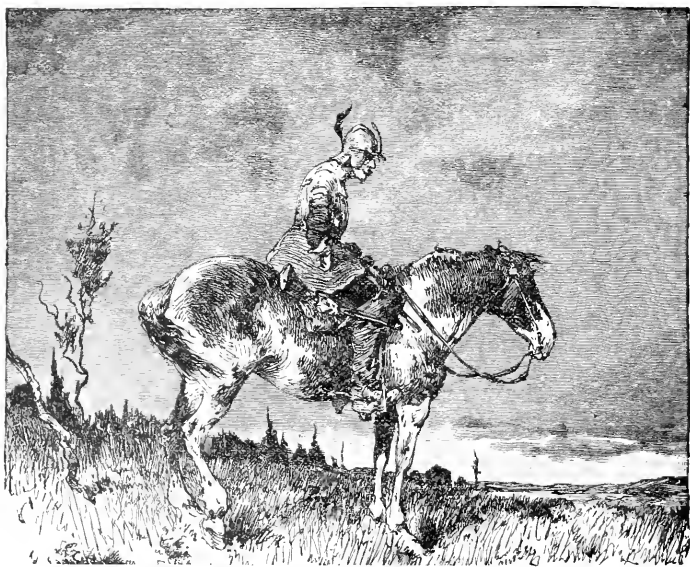
drink and become eternally young. He was made Governor of the island of Porto Rico, but even this honor would not tempt him to rest. He pushed on westward in search of the wonderful fountain, and at last, on Easter Sunday, he saw land. The Spaniards called Easter Sunday the day of flowers, and Ponce De Leon named the new land Florida. He landed near what is now St. Augustine, and, with his men, went about the woods and coasts there for many weeks. Five years later he came back again, and was wounded with a poisoned arrow, and went sadly back to his country to die. He had escaped old age, but not by drinking from the fountain of youth.

Vasco Nunez de Balboa, an adventurous Spaniard, was the first to cross the isthmus which divides North and South America. Looking down from a mountain, he saw the great western ocean stretching before him. He called it the South Sea, and took possession of it in the name of his Christian Majesty, the King of Spain. Meanwhile, Cortez was exploring in Yucatan and Mexico. By this time the King of Portugal deeply regretted that he had not accepted the services of Columbus when they were first offered to him. He grew envious of the rich possessions of Spain, and fitted out ships in 1519, under the leadership of Magellan, a sailor of wide experience, and a man whom the king counted among the greatest of his realm. Magellan passed the Indies and bore southward, sailing entirely around South America, marveling at the "mountain of fire," and rejoicing over the placid world of water which rolled in peaceful majesty before them. He named it the Pacific Ocean, because of its tranquility.

The unhappy relations between the Indians and the Europeans grew worse, instead of better. The white man gave the Indian lessons in treachery, which he was not slow to profit by. A party of gentle St. Dominican Brothers, who had come to America to make a "conquest of peace" among the savages, were captured, upon their landing, and brutally murdered. It was too late for kindness to be understood—too late for the word of the white man to be believed.

In 1519, a planter named D'Allyon, a man of wealth and high family, came to the American coast in search of slaves. He landed where South Carolina now is, and, kidnapping natives there, put them in the Spanish slave markets. His adventurous nature would have made him of much value to his country, but he fell a victim to his own evil works. On his second voyage he was murdered by the angry Indians. Eight years after this, an expedition in quest of gold was led out from the West Indies by Pamphilo de Narvaez. He and his

companions landed near Tampa Bay, and went westward along the Gulf of Mexico. The sufferings of Narvaez' men were very great. Their number rapidly decreased. They were restless with the spirit of adventure, and were not willing to settle down and wrench a living from the soil. Cuba put forward every effort to find the men, but was not successful. All but four of them died. These four were made slaves by the Indians, and wandered from tribe to tribe for six years. They came out at last near the Gulf of California. But it was a long time before they were heard from.



A SPANISH SOLDIER.

Hernando De Soto held a grant of the province of Florida from the crown of Spain, and landed not far from the spot where his fated predecessors had in Tampa Bay. This was on May 30, 1537. He was very ambitious, and wished to found a great empire, over which he should rule. Blinded with ambition, he had no pity for any one. In all that he did he was fierce and shamefully cruel. Following him was



THE BURIAL OF DE SOTO.

a splendid retinue of noblemen. They were tricked out in the most fashionable costumes of Spain, and glittering with inlaid armor, which recalled the magnificence of the crusades. None but a leader of iron will could have governed men so proud and ambitious. He took his companions through the lakes, streams and everglades of Florida. They lived upon water-cresses, shoots of Indian corn and palmetto leaves. Their policy was to fight the natives wherever they met them—an odd policy for men whose chief boast was their Christianity. Wherever



SPANISH ARMOR.

they went, they left behind them burned wigwams and aching hearts. Once, De Soto was met by a certain Indian chieftainess. She was a graceful young savage, with courteous manners, and went to meet De Soto in a canopied canoe, carrying gifts with her, among them a necklace of pearls, which she flung about the neck of the Spanish leader. But her people were used as slaves, and herself taken prisoner in spite of her gentleness. De Soto still went westward. He sent men to explore for gold, and took all the treasures from the Indians which he could find. He went up the Mississippi for some distance, and then westward, nearly to the Rocky Mountains. After his return to his post, in trying to force an opening through the swamps about the Mississippi river, he sickened and died. He was dropped, in the silence of the night, into the deep waters of the Mississippi, the victim of his own stubborn pride, for

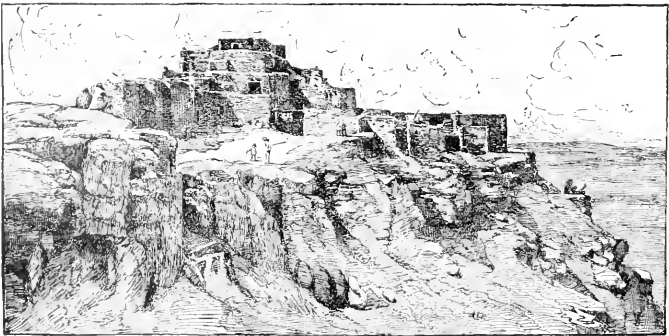
he could have had help and rescue had he been willing to accept it; but he refused to take his men back, shorn of their fine trappings and lessened in numbers. A few of his men, long months afterwards, reached the settlement of their countrymen on the Gulf of Mexico.

The Spaniards in the north of Mexico were greatly excited when the four unfortunate men who had escaped from the expedition of Narvæz reached them, with wonderful stories of the countries they had

seen. They told of stately cities, in which there were buildings of stone and a great quantity of jewels, besides silver and gold in plenty. In a short time an expedition was sent to explore this country, going up the coast of California, and exploring part of the Colorado river. They found the well-built cities, but the gold, silver and jewels were in small quantities. Later, a Spanish explorer name Cabrillo, went up the Pacific coast as far as Oregon. Following him came Sir Francis Drake, the celebrated English voyager. The history of his exploits is not full, but it is known that he was received pleasantly by the natives, and, after a brief exploration, crossed the ocean to the East Indies. England, however, never claimed California on the score of Drake's discovery. In the year 1580, an expedition of travelers followed up the river Del Norte, and made a settlement upon the site of the present city of Santa Fe. This expedition was under Onate. That city, with one exception (St. Augustine), is the oldest in the United States.

FOR FURTHER READING.

- HISTORY—Parkman's "Pioneers of France."
 Parkman's "France and England in North America."
 Reynold's "Old St. Augustine."
 Baird's "Huguenot Emigration to America."
 Jones' "De Soto and His March Through Georgia."
 FICTION—Simin's "Damsel of Darien," "Vasconselas" and "The
 Lily and the Totem."
 DRAMA—Mrs. L. S. McCord's "De Soto."
 POETRY—Butterworth's "Dream of Ponce de Leon."

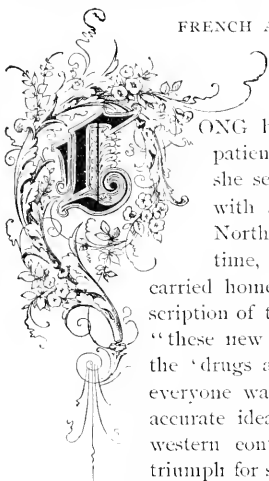


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CHAPTER V.

The Lilies of France.

FRANCE: HER EXPLORERS AND SETTLEMENTS—THE FIGHT BETWEEN
FRENCH AND SPANISH COLONIES.



LONG before this time, France was growing impatient to have a foothold in the new world; so she sent westward a mariner, named Verazzano, with a single ship. He reached the shore of North Carolina, and followed it southward for a time, trading with the Indians as he went. He carried home full accounts of what he saw, and a description of the Indians and their ways, and said that "these new countries were not altogether destitute of the 'drugs and spiceries, pearls and gold,' for which everyone was looking." It was he who first gave an accurate idea of the true size of the globe, and of the western continent. France rested content with this triumph for some time, and it was ten years later before she sent out Jacques Cartier, who set up the cross of France in Newfoundland, where the people, so he said, were the poorest in the world. In 1535 he made another journey, carrying the lilies of France up the St. Lawrence, and to the mouth of the stream which he named the St. Croix. The Indians received him as some great spirit, who could heal the sick and perform miracles, but he, like the Spaniards, seemed to forget that he belonged to a Christian country, and though the Indians treated him with much civility, made a treacherous return. When he set sail for his own land he seized a friendly chief and nine of his tribe, and, amid the wailing of the amazed Indians on the shore, carried them away across the sea. It was little wonder that the Indians remembered these things against the invaders, and that when the French returned, in 1540, and set up a colony near the mouth of the St. Lawrence, they found the Indians hostile. It was in vain that the lying Frenchmen

told them that the Indians they had carried over seas with them had been made into great men in the land, and lived in palaces of marble. The Indians had learned that one would expect nothing but lies from men with white faces; and the truth was that all of those proud-spirited Indians had died of broken hearts, except one poor lonely little maiden, whose duty it was to show herself at fetes for the curious French ladies to wonder at and exclaim over. Two forts were built to protect the new colony, one at the mouth of the St. Lawrence, and the other at the mouth of the St. Croix.

France also started a colony far south. At the head of this was John Ribault, and with him a band of soldiers, seamen and gentlemen. This was in the midst of the great religious reformation of Europe, when the Huguenots had been driven in large numbers from France to Holland. These oppressed people decided to set up their reformed protestant church in the wilderness, and for the first time made the new world the shelter of the scorned and the outcast. So, with a sword in one hand and a cross in the other, staunch John Ribault led his band of faithful worshipers into a land where they hoped to find peace. But it was not to be. When the King of Spain became aware that the French had planted a colony upon this territory, he sent Menendez, one of his most formidable generals, to oust them. Rene Laudonniere was temporarily in charge of the fort at Port Royal, where the Huguenots were, and John Ribault was hurrying over seas with supplies and additions to the settlement. The fleets of Ribault and Menendez had some thrilling adventures at sea, in which the Spanish general was outwitted. He retired to the coast and founded the city of St. Augustine, the oldest city within the present boundary of the United States, older even than Santa Fe. Here men, women and children were settled. Amid music and the thundering of guns Menendez landed, and kneeling to kiss the cross took possession in the name of Philip II, King of Spain. A few days after this, while Ribault was still at sea, a terrible storm broke over the country, which seriously disabled his fleet. Menendez guessed that Ribault would not have had time to reach Port Royal, and saw that a safe opportunity for attack had come. Hurrying overland he fell upon the French in the fort. The surprise was complete. The French were put to the sword. One hundred and thirty-two were killed that night, and in the morning ten of the fugitives were captured and hanged. Over these Menendez hung the label, "I do not this to Frenchmen, but to heretics." Among the number who escaped were the younger Ribault and Rene Laudonniere.

Ribault did not know that Port Royal had been taken. He had been wrecked on the coast with his three hundred and fifty men. He begged Menendez to spare them, and even offered a heavy ransom, but Menendez refused. Such as laid down their arms and surrendered to Menendez were butchered. Among these was Ribault. A few went southward, preferring to try the perils of the wilderness. In a few days the fort at Port Royal, which the Spaniards had re-named San Mateo, caught fire, and burned to the ground.

Three years later, the French sent over another expedition, under the command of De Gourgues. His purpose was to be revenged upon the Spaniards. He made friends with the Indians, who were ready to join in any enterprise which would be likely to make the Spanish suffer. De Gourgues fell upon the Spaniards exactly as Menendez had on Fort Caroline, and left only fifteen of the Spanish garrison living. The soldiers upon the other side of the river were also massacred. The party went on to San Mateo, which the Spaniards still held, and killed nearly all of the soldiers there. Those that were captured were hung, and De Gourgues put on the trees, "I do not this as unto Spaniards, but as unto traitors, robbers and murderers." St Augustine was finally burned by Sir Francis Drake.

FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY**—Jeffery's "French Dominions in America."
 Jones' "Antiquities of Southern Indians."
 Las Casas' "Narrative and Critical History of America" in 2 vols.
 Parkman's "Jesuits in America."
 Schoolcraft's "History and Condition of the Indian Tribes."
FICTION—Chateaubriand's "Atala."
POETRY—Levi Bishop's "Jesuit Missionary."

CHAPTER VI.

A Lodge in the Wilderness.

THE ENGLISH—THEIR SEARCH FOR THE NORTHWEST PASSAGE--
FROBISHER'S EXPLORATIONS—SIR HUMPHREY GILBERT'S
SETTLEMENT—THE COLONY OF SIR WALTER
RALEIGH—GOSNOLD'S FAILURE.



IT was the glowing stories which the Huguenots told in the flight which some of them made from Florida to England, after the massacres, that induced the English navigators to secure that land. They tried to find the northwest passage, for which Cabot had looked, and in 1578, Sir Francis Drake sailed up the Pacific coast, plundering, in the wicked fashion of those days, Spanish settlements as he went. He went as far as Washington Territory. But no slight failure could discourage the English. The land for which they looked wore such a dazzling aspect to them that neither the loss of men or money could stop them in their search for the way to Cathay. Pictures of the wonderful country of Kublai Khan filled them with dreams. Here, so they had heard, were twelve thousand cities, all near together. The estate of the king, spreading over ten miles, was a luxurious garden, watered with clear rivers and filled with the music of fountains, There were marble palaces, summer houses indescribably beautiful and airy, wonderful armies of trained soldiers, and magnificent fortresses. From here all the finest silks, the brightest gold and the richest spices came.

And yet, for all their attempts, more than one hundred years passed from the time of the landing of the Cabots before an English colony

was planted on American soil. It was in 1527 that one of the futile attempts was made. Two fine ships set sail from London and went toward the northeast, but encountering a sea of ice there, turned back. Only one of the ships reached England.

In 1536 the determined English sought once more for the mysterious passage, but so ill provided was the expedition, that when the men reached Newfoundland they were reduced to killing each other that all might not starve. The captain, who had thought at first that the loss of his men was, due to wild beasts, or to Indians, finally discovered the truth, and set forth their sin in the strongest words of which he was master. The miserable men stopped murdering each other, but it was not long before hunger drove them to cast lots for the choice of one who should die to save the rest. Fortunately for them a French ship, with plenty of food on board, arrived that night. The desperate Englishmen managed to get possession of the boat and put to sea, leaving the Frenchmen their empty vessel. However, the Frenchmen finally reached England, and were recompensed by the king for their losses.

It was in 1553 that Sir Hugh Willoughby, a most valiant gentleman, well born, renowned for singular skill in the service of war, started out with four vessels. They were well built and well provided, and one of them was considered quite a marvel of skill and strength. No expedition which left England went with more display. The whole court came to Greenwich, and the noblemen came running out to see the ships. The windows were crowded, and people looked down from the tops of towers. The shore was black with sight-seers. Sailors crowded the ships in the harbor. The American-bound vessels set sail amid salute after salute from the royal guns, but the cruel northern seas wrecked them as they have so many since. Two of them were found years later by some Russian fishermen, and in the cabin of one sat Sir Hugh Willoughby, with a pen in his frozen fingers. Scattered about both ships lay the bodies of the perished crew, every man of them frozen to death. The sailors tried to take the ships back to England, but they foundered at sea. But, though this expedition was so tragic, it was not absolutely useless, for some of the crew in one of the other ships reached Archangel, and traveled overland to Moscow, and commerce between England and Russia was opened. This was of great value to England.

England could not quiet her enthusiasm on the subject of the new world, and in 1576 Martin Frobisher set sail with his three small vessels. Queen Mary, leaning from her windows, condescended to wave her

hands to the passing ships as a farewell token of her good wishes. The first journey of Frobisher brought few results; one of them was somewhat humorous. He brought with him a few black stones, which he had picked up on the island of Cumberland. These he gave his wife as a souvenir of his journey. She put them into the fire, and when they were taken out, they proved to be gold. This filled Frobisher with impatience to return. He started with fifteen ships, all of which were to come back laden with ore, and so they did, but the ore had in it no gold. Frobisher found the strait into Hudson's Bay which bears his name, and which he supposed was a passage into the sea of Suez. Just what these ship-loads of black stones cost England, it would be difficult to guess. In time, however, even the most saving forgot about that unfortunate waste, and another northern expedition was planned in 1585, under the charge of John Davis. Davis' Strait is all that serves to keep alive this voyage. Then came the scheme of Sir Humphrey Gilbert, a very distinguished gentleman, as full of ideas as he was of bravery. He sailed in 1583, with a fleet of five ships, and with a company of two hundred and sixty men, among whom were refiners of minerals and mechanics of all trades. They settled, for a time, near the mouth of the St. Johns river, in Newfoundland, and set up a pillar, with the arms of England carved upon it. Indeed, there was more display than work, with the usual unhappy results. Many of Sir Humphrey's men deserted, and some died.

At the colony at St. Johns, a conspiracy was started to seize the vessels while the admiral and captains were on shore. Gilbert, therefore, found necessary to send home as many of the sick and insubordinate as could be spared. Soon after this, those remaining resumed their voyage. One of the ships was lost, but Sir Humphrey was still in a comparatively happy frame of mind. Had he not found ore which the assayer said held silver? But the mines, or what he thought were the mines, proved to yield nothing after all. On the way to England, the *Golden Hind* foundered. Gilbert himself was on the ship. It was the smallest of the fleet, but Gilbert refused to let any of his men stand a peril that he did not share. In the midst of the terrible storm, in which the boat sank, Sir Humphrey sat quietly in the stern with a book in his hand, and called out cheerfully, when the companion boat offered help: "We are as near Heaven by sea as by land." When Sir Gilbert died, his ambitious projects were taken up by Sir Walter Raleigh, his half-brother.

No more charming figure than he ever figured in American history. He was a soldier, a sailor, a statesman, and a most polished gentleman,



John Adams

a graceful poet, a historian and a thinker. He had sent numerous ships to America at his own expense, being very eager for England's glory, but the men on them offended the Indians by their bad conduct, and were always forced to return to England. Finally, he sent out a colony which he felt sure would succeed. It had as a governor a respected Englishman by the name of John White; with him was his family, many friends, and a corps of mechanics and farmers. John White established his company on Roanoke Island, and having settled them as well as possible, left for England to obtain more supplies. Before he left, White's daughter, the wife of Ananias Dare, gave birth to a daughter—the first little English girl born on American soil. White was gone a long time—a strangely long time, considering everything. When he returned the colony had entirely disappeared. It is true that they found the word "Croatoan" carved upon one of the trees. This was the name of one of the islands not far distant, and it had been agreed upon by the colonists, at the time of the departure of their governor, that, should they see fit to leave for any reason, they would write the name of their destination where it could be found. But John White was only a passenger upon the vessel which visited the spot where the colony had been, and he was taken to the far south. Sir Walter Raleigh sent out ship after ship to search for the lost colony, but every captain found excuses for not obeying his commands, and the unfortunate people were never definitely heard from. After the gallant Sir Raleigh was imprisoned in the Tower of London, no one thought more about the matter. They were probably killed by Powhatan. Sir Raleigh has the distinction, among greater ones, of having made the use of tobacco fashionable in England, as well as having introduced potatoes to English tables. He himself never visited the North American colony which had cost him so much money and anxiety. The two trips which he made to America were to the mouth of the Orinoco river, in South America.

The next colonial failure was in charge of Bartholomew Gosnold. He, also, started for the great extent of territory which Raleigh had named Virginia after the virgin Queen Elizabeth, and which included all the region lying between Canada and Florida. Gosnold's colony was attempted on Cuttyhunk Island, but he and his company only stayed there a few months.

FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY—Buchanan's "History, Manners and Customs of North American Indians."
 BIOGRAPHY—Oldys' "Life of Raleigh."
 Southey's "Life of Raleigh."
 FICTION—"First Settlers of Virginia."
 POETRY—Longfellow's "Sir Humphrey Gilbert."

CHAPTER VII.

Founding the Old Dominion.

THE LONDON AND PLYMOUTH COMPANIES—THE VIRGINIAN SETTLEMENT—CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH AND HIS WONDERFUL ADVENTURES—POCAHONTAS—THE NEW CHARTER—THE WRECK OF THE "SEA ADVENTURE."



THE English king saw that it was necessary to take fresh measures if he ever wished to establish a successful colony in America. He therefore formed two large companies, one of which he called the London Company, and the other the Plymouth Company. The first of these was to go to the south, and the other to the north, and they were to build no dwellings nearer to each other than one hundred miles. It was evident that the king understood the quarrelsome nature of his subjects. Each of these colonies was to be governed by thirteen men, who were appointed by the king; and should any of them die, or resign their positions, they were at liberty to choose a man to fill the place themselves, provided that the man was not a clergyman. The king, it will be remembered, was James I, a man of much learning, though not of so much wisdom, for his learning was not of a sort which taught him kindness. In the summer of 1606, two ships belonging to the Plymouth Company sailed away from England. One of these ships was taken by the Spaniards, but the other one coasted off Maine and made a hasty return. The general report of the captain pleased Chief Justice Popham, who made up his mind, on the following year, to send his brother, George Popham, and Raleigh Gilbert, a son of Sir Humphrey,

to settle a colony; but they made no permanent settlement, and it remained for the London Company to make the first permanent village. In this there were one hundred and five men, and no women. Among them were mechanics, soldiers and servants, and, if the truth must be told, rather too many gentlemen. Their ships were the "Sarah Constant," the "Godspeed" and the "Discovery," and Captain Christopher Newport was their commander. They were foolish enough to go by the old route of the West Indies, stopping along by the way in the pleasant towns of the Spaniards, and wasting both food and time. There were too many proud men among them for such a thing to be advisable, for they were certain to get into quarrels. The London Council had told them not to break the seals of their letters of instruction until they had landed on the shores of Virginia, so no man knew which was greatest, and all tried to exercise authority. One of the most disagreeable among them was John Smith. This young man was always energetic and nervous. He wanted to do a great many things, and do them in his own peculiar way, and had very little patience with slower and duller persons, so he very naturally fretted at the wasteful way in which matters were being conducted, and, as a consequence, found himself suddenly arrested. It was in the lovely month of April when they sailed into the Chesapeake Bay, and giving names to Cape Henry and Cape Charles, went eagerly to work. The sealed box was opened, and the names of the council were heard. They were Bartholomew Gosnold, John Smith, Edward Wingfield, Christopher Newport, John Ratcliff, John Martin and George Kendall. They spent half a month in looking for a suitable place for their colony, and fixed at length on the spot where Jamestown still stands, and which they named in honor of their king. All of the council, except Smith, who was still in disfavor, were sworn into office. Then work began seriously. Try to imagine how they cut the trees and pitched their tents, how they split the logs for boards and made gardens, planting the seeds they had brought with them, and braided nets from twine. Imagine, too, how heartily they must have talked, laughed, sung and quarreled. They had been instructed by the council to see if an opening could be found by some river or lake from Virginia to the South Sea, and Captain Newport fitted out a shallop, and went with quite a number of men up the James river, toward the Appalachian mountains. The Indians received them with kindness, and fed them with the best that they had. The best was not bad. It consisted of venison, turkey, maize, strawberries, mulberries, dried nuts and tobacco.

The returns which Newport's men gave for these dainties was principally beads and whisky. It seems as if always the invading Christian was the first to do a wrong thing. One of the remarkable characters they met upon this voyage was a strong, manlike queen, who refused to be scared at the sound of a gun, although her braves were so. Newport and his men went on till they came to a great waterfall, and then turned back, noticing, with some fear as they did so, a change in the manner of the Indians. When they got back to the camp they found that several men had been wounded and one boy killed. A fort was built for further protection, and in a short time Newport set sail for England. While he was gone, those remaining at the settlement quarreled frightfully. For one thing, they were suffering from hunger. It seemed as if they never had enough to eat. With game in the woods and fish in the rivers, why this should be so, it is difficult to guess. Disease broke out among them, occurring principally from the want of food and proper shelter. For, instead of building substantial houses of logs, they crowded into one miserable, insecure building. Each man had for his daily allowance but half a pint of boiled wheat, and another of barley, infested with worms. At last it became necessary for the president, Wingfield, to set aside such sack and vinegar as was left, to use in case of extreme sickness, and for the communion table. It was this action largely which caused the hungry and selfish men of the colony to find fault with Wingfield, and to depose him from his position as president. John Smith, Ratcliff and Martin were the men who took the principal part in this, and from that time on, John Smith seems to have been the moving spirit of the colony, although many of its best actions were suggested by Gosnold, a man very wise and pious. That any of the colony lived over that dreadful summer was owing largely to the kindness of the Indians, who brought them provisions. In the autumn, things went more peacefully, as the game became more plentiful and the harvests were gathered. Smith then went upon one of his journeys into the interior, where he came very near losing his life at the hands of some strange Indians. It is said that he tied his guide to his own body with his garters, and as his guide was an Indian, his foes would not shoot at him. At length, however, he was obliged to surrender, and was taken before the king of the tribe. Then he displayed all of that matchless ingenuity which made him so interesting to all. He showed the Indians his round compass made of ivory, and explained to them the movements of the sun, moon and stars, the shape of the earth, the comparative differences of the land and sea, and told them of all the

sorts of men about which he knew anything. But notwithstanding this entertainment, the Indians tied him to a tree and were about to shoot him with arrows, when the king, suddenly concluding that he would like to save a man who knew so many curious things, released him. They fed him so well that Smith became alarmed. He was quite sure they were fattening him before they killed him. Finally they promised him his liberty, and even offered to give him some land and women, if he would help them attack Jamestown. But he told them of the great guns which the English had, and frightened them into giving up the plan. Then he capped the climax of their wonder by writing to the fort for a quantity of presents for the Indians, who were unable to imagine how paper could speak. At last he was taken to the greatest king of all, Powhatan, who received him with much state, with a young Indian girl upon each side of him, and rows of men and women, much decorated, around about. He was treated with great ceremony and distinction, which, however, according to Smith's account, ended in rather a peculiar way. He was dragged to a great stone, upon which his head was laid, and by which stood men with clubs ready to beat out his brains, but at this very dreadful moment, Pocahontas, the king's dearest daughter, threw her arms about his head and laid her face across his, to prevent them from touching him. His life was spared. The story is so romantic that there is a reluctance to doubt it, especially when it is remembered that Pocahontas was only twelve years old at this time.

The little princess, Pocahontas, figured largely in the history of the colony. She shocked the decorous gentlemen exceedingly by turning somersaults about the fort, but conciliated them by frequently bringing them food, and by warning them of attacks from the Indians. Years afterward she was baptized and re-named Lady Rebecca, which was a much more respectable name than Pocahontas, which means "Little Wanton," and was given to her because she was noticeably wild, even among the Indian maidens. In course of time she married John Rolfe, an English gentleman, who took her to England, where she was presented to the Queen by Lord and Lady de la Ware. She sickened with small-pox just before taking the ship to return to America, and died at the age of twenty-two. No woman of those days has so extended a reputation; no other one has been so much written about. She is the subject of many novels and poems, and even the dullest historian has not been able to pass her by without some mention of her kindness of heart, her wayward impulsiveness, and her beauty. It was not strange

that John Smith wished to publish the fact that she showed some interest in him. Her father, Powhatan, has also been much written about. He was the most powerful of all the Indian chiefs of Virginia; perhaps the most wily of them as well. He is described as being very stalwart and well-shaped of limb, and with a sad countenance and thin grey hair. So proud was he that he could not be made to kneel when the council saw fit to crown him after the English manner. King James, of England, sent robes and a crown that the ceremony might be carried out in a king-like manner, but neither threats nor coaxing could make the disdainful old savage bend a knee, and it became necessary for two of the noblemen to press heavily upon his shoulders, so that his head was sufficiently bowed to suit popular prejudice.

Meanwhile, Smith was having a most melancholy time. Several times he was taken captive. Once he was condemned to death by his own colony, because two Englishmen lost their lives fighting the Indians, under his command. But upon the very day when he was to be killed, Captain Newport fortunately returned from England, where he had been for supplies, and interceded for Smith's life. Smith was also stung by a poisonous fish when he was wading the creek, and was so severely poisoned that his friends had no doubt of his near death, and hastened to dig a grave for him, but this redoubtable hero unexpectedly brought himself to, and helped eat the fish that came so near ending him. By this time, what with malaria, lack of food and exposure, the colony had been reduced in nine months to about forty persons, but Newport's ship brought one hundred and twenty men, besides a stock of provisions, farming implements, and of seeds. It seemed, however, as if good fortune was never to be theirs. Hardly had they got in better mood from Newport's help, than the fort was almost destroyed by fire. Worse still, the company became wildly excited over some hills of yellow mica, which they supposed to be gold, and this fever of happy excitement had its re-action, which left them more miserable and despondent than before. Smith spent the summer in sailing upon the waters of Virginia, along the bays and rivers, and in becoming acquainted with the different tribes of Indians. On the return from the last expedition, Smith was made president of the colony, a position which he had always desired. About the same time, Newport arrived again from England with a second supply of men and provisions, and with him the two first women of the colony, Mistress Forrest and her maid, Ann Burras. It is unnecessary to say that it was not many weeks before Ann Burras was married.

Upon this occasion, Newport had orders from the London Council to bring home a lump of gold, to discover the passage to the South Sea, and to find the survivors of the Roanoke colony. It goes without saying that he was able to do none of these things. All of his ingenuity was bent upon keeping the friendship of Powhatan, and he was aided in this, to a certain extent, by John Savage, an English lad, who, for thirteen years, lived with Powhatan, acting as an interpreter between the English and the Indians. History says little about his youth, and, indeed, his name is the only thing remembered of him, but he must have led a very wild and exciting life—indeed there must have been an uncertainty about his life which, of itself, made existence interesting. John Smith had difficulty in keeping the colony from starving. He relied chiefly upon the Indians for food, for the colonists were too lazy to protect the stores brought from England, but allowed them to decay and to become infested with the rats, which came in the ships, and which, like themselves, found a settlement on the shores of the new world. Smith's greatest trial was in trying to persuade the gentlemen about him that they were able to work, for they would neither plant, fish, nor hunt, and would shirk, like schoolboys, each task given them. It is said that two of them did go to work felling trees, and worked so hard that the president wrote that forty of them would be worth a hundred common men, but they failed to keep up their labor. At length, the entire council of the colony, with the exception of Smith, was drowned. Smith then became more necessary to the company, and more important in his own esteem than ever. The way in which he slew Indian chiefs of gigantic size, and, alone, routed great armies of savages, is more like the history of some modern Jack the Giant-Killer, than of any ordinary man. The colony was in very bad humor. Sometimes members of it mutinied, and two Dutchmen fled to the Indians, and inspired a conspiracy with Powhatan for the entire destruction of Jamestown. Smith learned of their plans, however, and brought even Powhatan into a state of humility. But for all of his bravery, the colony was steadily failing. The cost by which it had been maintained was great, and, in 1609, the king found it necessary to form a new corporation to sustain it. This was composed of the most distinguished and wealthy men of England, and a fleet of nine ships, carrying five hundred people, left England in the month of May—a month when England is most beautiful—for the tragic shores of America. Seven of these reached the settlement in August, but one of them foundered at sea, and another, the *Sea Adventure*, on board

which was the admiral, Gates, Captain Newport, William Strachey and Summers, also failed to appear. This vessel was wrecked off the Bermudas, in a storm so terrible that the description which William Strachey afterwards gave of it served to inspire Shakespeare's description of the storm in the first act of "The Tempest." "Such was the tumult of the elements that the sea dashed above the clouds, and gave battle unto Heaven. It could not be said to be rain. The waters, like whole rivers, did flood into the air. Winds and seas were as mad as fury and rage could make them." They passed three days and four nights in this dreadful strait, and, on the last night of their struggle, were cheered with a strange, fantastic light, that trembled up among the shrouds and stayed there till the morning watch. When morning really came, they found the boat lodged between two rocks, in still waters. The passengers and crew of the *Sea Adventure* spent their winter on the island. The climate was delightful. There was hunting and fishing, as well as plenty of berries and wild fruits. A few persons died, others married, and there were two births. One of the little children born there, in the midst of the Atlantic ocean, was named Bermuda; the other, a boy, Bermudas. In May, a year from the time when they had left England, they started once more for the Virginian colony.

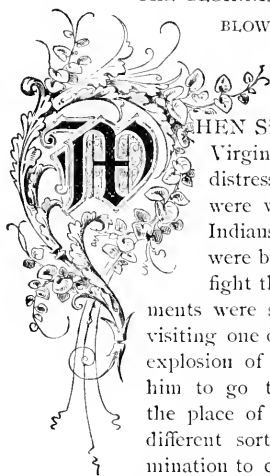
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- HISTORY**—Smith's "True Relation of Virginia."
 Campbell's "Virginia."
 Doyle's "English Colonies in America."
FICTION—Hopkins' "The Youth of the Old Dominion."
 Moseby's "Pocahontas."
POETRY—Hillar's "Pocahontas."
 Seba Smith's "Powhatan."
 Mrs. Heman's "Pocahontas."
 Mrs. Sigourney's "Pocahontas."
DRAMA—Owen's "Pocahontas."
 Seagull's "Eastward, Ho!"
 Shakespeare's "Tempest"—1st act.

CHAPTER VIII.

Through Death to Victory.

FROM THE BERMUDAS TO VIRGINIA—THE STARVING TIMES—THE
ARRIVAL OF LORD DE LA WARE—HELP FROM ENGLAND—
THE BEGINNING OF SLAVERY—THE FIRST
BLOW AT INTEMPERANCE.



WHEN Sir Thomas Gates and his men arrived at the Virginian colony, they found things in a most distressing condition. Once more the people were without food, and were begging from the Indians. For one reason and another the Indians were becoming sullen, and were more inclined to fight than to give favors. Various smaller settlements were started around about, and John Smith, in visiting one of these, met with a serious accident by the explosion of gunpowder, which made it necessary for him to go to England. Percy became president in the place of Smith, but he was a character of a very different sort. It needed Smith's overbearing determination to control the men of the colony. Smith had been able to make the colonists work a little. Percy was not able to do this. What with hard drink and idleness, and all of its various consequences, the men were reduced in health and in courage. They had killed the domestic animals and eaten up all the supplies which Smith had seen to the storing of. That horrible winter is known as the starving time, a name which is remarkably appropriate, for at the time of Gates' arrival only sixty out of five hundred were alive. These were hardly alive, and a few of them came crawling out to welcome Gates when he arrived. This was in May, 1610. No scene more disorderly and desolate could be imagined. The very houses had been torn down for firewood, because the colonists had been afraid to venture into the woods. Gates thought it best not to live in a place so associated

with terror and death. There were two vessels in port, and Gates was possessed of two which his men had built on the Bermudas. They boarded these and were about riding out of the harbor when word was brought them from Lord de la Ware that he was coming to their help with men and provisions. Lord de la Ware was chief of the London Company, although up to this time he had not himself visited the colony. It had been with much care that Commander Gates saved the block-house, where the people had huddled that terrible winter, from being burned, for the colonists, like a set of crazy schoolboys, were much fonder of destroying than building up, and if they could have had their way, would have set fire to everything in Jamestown. They had reason to be very thankful that Gates' wiser advice had been followed, and that upon the command of Lord de la Ware to return, they had a place to go into. Whatever these gentlemen of the old time did, they did with ceremony. They may have been very ragged and very worthless, but they were always dignified and pretentious. The landing of Lord de la Ware was a matter for much ceremony. It began, as did all their demonstrations, with prayer. Though Lord de la Ware was so successful and brilliant a nobleman and governor, he bore always a spirit of true and sincere humility. He was, above all things, deeply reverential, and though he could be severe, he could also be gentle. It was the time now to be severe, and he determined there should be no more idleness, no more hard drinking, and much less playing of games among the wayward colonists. He began trading with the Indians for corn, built two substantial forts, and started various schemes, some of which were not successful. In a year the malaria, which had affected so many of the colonists, overpowered him, and it was necessary for him to return to England. Shortly after his leaving Virginia, Thomas Gates and another commander, Sir Thomas Dale, arrived from England with fresh expeditions. They had not only men, but what was actually more important at that time, victuals and domestic animals. Sir Thomas seems to have understood, better than any who had preceded him, the economy by which a young nation should preserve itself. To each man he gave three acres of ground, which should belong to him absolutely. He no longer allowed them to live upon the public stores. It became necessary for them to make their living, or starve. He insisted upon their building houses for themselves, and checked the disease which had spread so rapidly when they persisted upon crowding into one poorly ventilated shed. New settlements were made about this time, and though they were under the same local government, it extended the cultivation of land.

For the first time streets were laid out, and the plantations had definite boundaries. This progress was slow, but under these two determined leaders, it was sure.

Stories of the wildness and drunkenness of the men of Virginia had been carried back to England, and the dignified members of the London corporation there determined to uproot these evils by a set of laws. They must have imagined that the natures of Englishmen were very much changed by crossing the Atlantic, for it is certain that no Englishman living in their native island ever obeyed such laws as these. There was a penalty of death for wilfully pulling up a flower, a root or an herb when set to weeding. He who uttered an oath had a bodkin thrust through his tongue at the second offense, and at the third offense suffered death. If he was absent from the place of public worship, he was deprived of a week's allowance for the first offense, publicly whipped for the second, and killed for the third. No one was allowed to kill any domestic animal, not even a chicken or a dog, though it might belong to the person who killed it. A tradesman who neglected his business was sent to the galleys for four years if he persisted in the offense. It was evident that the great waste of money, time, opportunity and supplies of which the colony had been guilty had irritated the London Company into making these ridiculous regulations. Still more severe than these were the martial rules, which each private citizen was expected to know and obey.

For the first time the colony began to make some money. It came from the sale of tobacco, and, for the raising of this plant, the cultivation of corn was neglected. It was through the taxation of tobacco in England that the colony came to open its first trading with Holland, and the indirect outcome of it was the first quarrel with England. A settlement was finally made, but not for several years. From the extreme of idleness the colonists went to the extreme of industry, as soon as their love for money prompted it, and those who owned no land did not hesitate to plant tobacco in the very streets of Jamestown. England began to see that the wealth of Virginia did not lie in gold, nor its advantages in a passage to the southern seas. Tobacco charmed them, as the prospects of Cathay had bewitched them before. Men were sent over in ship-loads, and most of these men were criminals, who had been condemned to serve out a term of years. Others were paupers, who sold themselves into this voluntary slavery for a given period of time, with the understanding that at the end of that time they were to become free citizens. Worse, still, so valuable did men become, that in 1619 a

Dutch ship came to Jamestown with a cargo of negroes, from the coast of Guinea. And thus the negro was brought under the American-English government for the first time. It was the beginning of slavery in the colonies of the new world.

Perhaps it is hardly worthy of mention—of such slight importance were things of this nature—that Captain Argall, who was for a time governor of the colony, saw fit to destroy a little colony of French, at Port Royal, in the Bay of Fundy. The destruction of a few men in those days mattered but little, and even the historian would only think this worthy of mention, because it was one of the first outbreaks between the French and the English. Governor Argall set the example of greediness. He and his colony gave themselves up to a near-sighted plan of money-making, neglecting all those things which were necessary for the real comfort of their homes, and for the better mode of living. The distinguished Lord de la Ware was sent out to displace him, but he died on his way. Sir George Yeardley was made President of Virginia, which now numbered about six hundred persons. Their reduction had come from the same old mismanagement. There was a scarcity of food. To put them in better position, Yeardley gave them the power of self-government, and on July 30, 1619, met the first legislative assembly in this country. It had twenty-two representatives, a governor, and the council.

Here, the first blow was struck at intemperance. There was an enactment against drunkenness, making it a punishable offence.

Three hundred members of the colony died the next year. The king determined to replace these men. He sent one hundred felons from the jails of England. Sir Edward Sandys, one of the most thoughtful, courteous and cultivated men in Virginia, did what he could to turn this mistake into an advantage. He founded a university at Henricho, one of the smaller settlements, where both Indians and whites were accepted as pupils. About this University were ten thousand acres of land, and here, in less than two years, one hundred men were settled. Then, a fortunate thing happened. One hundred English maidens offered to come to the colony, as wives for the young men. After this there were homes. Wherever there are homes, there is order. For the first time, it began to look as if there might be a new and prosperous England on the shores of America.

Another thing that marked this year was the sending out of many poor boys and girls, from the overcrowded factories of England, to serve as apprentices in America. These boys and girls, who, in the

condition of England, might have been doomed to a life of constant drudgery, laid the foundation of some of the best and most distinguished families of this country. Within a year 1,261 persons came to this country, either through Sir Edward Sandys, who was treasurer of the company, or through private ventures. Sir Edward Sandys should be remembered by all who love books, and have enjoyed the blessing of a free-school instruction, as the founder of the first school in America, and the writer of the first book. This was a translation of Ovid, made in leisure hours, upon the banks of the James river.

FOR FURTHER READING:

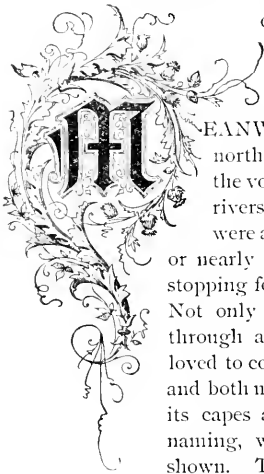
- HISTORY—Jefferson's "Notes on Virginia."
Jefferson's "Old Churches of Virginia."
BIOGRAPHY—Spark's "American Biographies."
FICTION—Thackeray's "Virginians."
Cooke's "Virginia Comedians."
James' "Old Dominion."
Defoe's "Jacques."



CHAPTER IX.

Norumbega, the Beautiful.

THE SETTLEMENT OF MAINE—THE VOYAGE OF THE ENGLISH—CHAM-
PLAIN AND VERMONT—THE SETTLEMENT
OF MT. DESERT.



MEANWHILE, there were settlements far to the north. Maine was a most attractive country to the voyager. Its innumerable lakes and beautiful rivers, its magnificent coast, its hills and meadows, were all tempting. For three-fourths of a century, or nearly that, explorers had dallied about it, often stopping for a while and making insecure settlements. Not only had the English been enamored with it through all these years, but the French, as well, had loved to coast along its shores and explore its interior, and both nations had given names to its rivers and bays, its capes and islands. In nothing more than in this naming, was the different policy of the two nations shown. The English made the mistake of insisting upon the use of their own favorite names. The French used the Indian names, and seemed to bend to the customs and prejudices of the race whose country they were invading. This was a very sure way of winning and keeping friendship. The French went further. They dressed as the Indians did whenever it was possible for them to do so; they hunted after the fashion of the Indians, and fished with Indian tackle. Imitation is the sincerest flattery, and it could not fail to have its effect even upon a race of savages.

Innumerable voyages were made by both French and English to Norumbega, which was then the musical appellation of that country, but no one ventured to put a king's name upon the soil or to found a lasting colony. The first actual settlement made in Maine was led by De Monts a governor of the province of Spain. With him came Samuel

de Champlain. Both of these men had previously been to Maine upon expeditions, but this time they came with a charter from Henry IV. De Monts was created Lieutenant-General of Acadia, as the country was called, from the fortieth to the forty-sixth degree of north latitude. De Monts was a Huguenot, one of the despised sect, but he had given such signal service to Henry IV that it was decided to trust him with this important venture; but while he was to follow his conscience in the matter of his own personal religion, it was agreed that the savages over which he had ruled were to be converted into Catholicism. The merchants of Rouen and Rochelle constituted the company which held the letters patent to the trade in furs and fish in Acadia. With De Monts came certain distinguished noblemen, Jean de Vincourt, the Baron de Pontrincourt, and Champlain. These gentlemen were anxious to find a quiet spot, to which they might bring their friends and families and live in peace, undisturbed by the politics of the Old World. It took the expedition two months to reach the eastern coast of Nova Scotia, and a month to explore the coast. They decided to settle their colony on a little island in the St. Croix river. Their history is similar to that of the colonies who settled farther south. There were the same hardships, the same carelessness and lack of forethought, and the same suffering. Champlain coasted far to the south, taking in the innumerable points of the bewildering coast, and turning up the mouth of every river which he came to. The Indians were not inclined to be amiable. Doubtless they had had too many previous experiments with invaders. So wretched did the condition of the colony become, that it became necessary, in the course of a few months, to move it to a harbor in Acadia, and here for several years it lived feebly.

It will be remembered that the Virginian colony was sustained by a company which had its headquarters in London, and that this was one of two companies which the king granted patents to. The northern company sent out, in 1605, a fleet of ships, under the care of George Weymouth. The experiences of Weymouth and his sailors were not of the usual sort. They were delightful. They landed upon the pleasantest of spots, and encountered beautiful weather. They found pearls in the shells on the beaches, and excellent clay for brickmaking, and trees whose gums smelled like frankincense. The Indians were friendly and hospitable, but the return made was that which could always be expected; Weymouth kidnaped five Indians, and carried them to England. The report which he brought to England hastened the action of the northern Virginia company in sending out that vain

expedition of theirs, under the charge of Raleigh, Gilbert and George Popham. A few months, as has been said before, ended the existence of the settlement. Then the French made a second attempt. This was in 1608. The expedition was under the leadership of Champlain, who sailed to where Quebec now stands, and founded that ancient city. He finished a fine, if primitive, fort there, saw that garden plots were laid out and planted, and then left the colony to its own industries, looking in on it from time to time in the midst of his many voyages.

No more adventurous spirit than he ever lived. His story reads like a romance, and one of his adventures is too interesting to pass. He started up the great river St. Lawrence, with a few companions, giving names as he went to the tributaries. So appropriate were these names that they cling to this day. At the mouth of the Richelieu river he met, by appointment, a party of natives. These were on the war-path against the Iroquois. He went with these Indians, sending back all but two of his men. The light canoes were carried from water to water, and at last they reached the magnificent lake of Champlain, the only thing which this great voyager ever gave his name to. After several days they met their foes. All night they camped upon the banks of the river, taunting each other with wild cries, and in the morning the savages confronted each other. The two parties approached until they were within a few hundred feet of each other, then Champlain's party of Indians opened, and let the astonished Iroquois behold the spectacle of three white men. The well-aimed guns of the French wounded three Iroquois, and the entire party took to flight. After this battle, Champlain returned to Quebec, and lived there in some primitive state as governor. With one interruption, when the French yielded their possessions to England, he was governor until 1635. The little struggling colony in Maine, which had been planted by De Monts, had but a sorry time. As might have been expected, De Monts' authority was finally taken from him, because of the prejudice existing against Huguenots. However, he managed to get over in 1606, just in time to keep the discouraged colonists from starting for France. About this time Pontreincourt returned from France, with orders to make the new settlement a central station for the conversion of the Indians, and brought with him a number of Jesuit missionaries. These, and the missionaries that succeeded them, have been very prominent in religious work of this continent. The patroness of these voyages was Madame la Marquise de Guercheville, who was a very devoted member of the Catholic Church, and who later held the grant, not only of Acadia, but the entire territory

covered by the United States. In 1630, she sent other ships, with two more Jesuits. These settled upon Mt. Desert, one of the loveliest places, every one will admit, on this continent, with mountains which reach down to the sea and lakes beyond the mountains, with valleys and grand meadows. Flowers of all sorts grew here, and berries, all up the green mountain sides, which reached two thousand feet above the sea. The Indians were friendly, and turned willing ears to the preaching of the priests. The settlement was comfortably established, when Argall came up from the Virginian colony. Without any warning, he opened a cruel warfare upon the peaceful people, stole the commission of their leader, and, under the pretense that they had settled without royal consent, arrested them. Many of them he took to Jamestown. Others were left to find their way in an open boat to Port Royal.

FOR FURTHER READING.

- HISTORY—Williamson's "Maine."
Lodge's "English Colonies in America."
Voyages of Samuel de Champlain."
Thompson's "Vermont."
FICTION—D. P. Thompson's "Grant Gurley."
POETRY—Whittier's "Norumbega."
Whittier's "Bride of Pennagoek."
Whittier's "Mogg Megone."



CHAPTER X.

Conquest of the Wilderness.

NOVA SCOTIA AND THE ENGLISH DESPOLIATION—THE SETTLEMENT
OF NEW HAMPSHIRE—THE MODE OF NORTHERN
COLONIAL GOVERNMENT.



INSTEAD of disapproving of this cruel action, the Governor of Jamestown sent him back to the pleasant hamlet of Acadia, where the French had a settlement, so thoroughly national in all of its characteristics that it seemed like a little piece of France set down upon the shores of the new world. None of the other colonists, then or later, accepted all of the trials which they experienced in an uncultivated country, with more bravery and jocularity of spirit. They were fond of dancing and all sorts of merriments. They built their houses neatly, sustained their church, revered their priest, and from the first encouraged home industries. They had herds of fine cattle and sheep, and well cared for fields. All of these possessions Argall destroyed. He burned the fort, drove away the cattle, and putting all the Acadians upon ships, with such of their worldly goods as he did not care to confiscate, sent them away from the home which they had, with the Frenchman's effusiveness, already learned to regard with so much affection. Long years after, when some of the Acadians were very old, they came sadly back to die near the spot which they had learned to love so warmly.

In 1614 Captain John Smith, who could not by any series of misfortunes be kept in England, came over to see what might be going on along the coast of Maine. He and his men were looking for gold, but as fishing seemed at that time to be as paying a business as gold mines, and

as fishing was a bird in the hand, while mining was still in the bush, he concluded to lade his ships with a cargo of the best fish to be found along the coast. He carried home, in addition to this, twenty-seven savages, seized by his shipmaster, who were taken to Spain and disposed of there at a profit. But these were rescued by some Spanish friars, and finally returned to their native home. After laying the matter of cod fishing before the English king and lords, he made another attempt to reach America in 1615, but was driven back to port by storms, and history tells little or nothing more of him.

About this time Ferdinando Gorges, who was president of the Plymouth Company in England, determined to send out a settlement at his own expense, since none of the companies seemed to second him in his aspiration to establish a successful fishery. The man whom he chose to carry out his plan was Richard Vines. So many selfish and contemptible characters figured in the early history of America, that it is a relief to think of one man who was thoroughly good and noble in all that he did. Richard Vines was associated with no great discovery or conquest. He did not bring his nation any great wealth, but his life was one which everyone is glad to think of. He reached Sago Bay in 1617, and found that a terrible plague had broken out, which was rapidly thinning the Indian tribes. Vines could easily have left and gone back to England, or to some other port, but he stayed among the plague-stricken Indians as a physician, and attended them constantly through all of their trials. Neither he nor his men were ever ill, although they laid in cabins where the Indians were dying with the disease. His work of exploration through this tedious winter was very careful. He made the coast more thoroughly known to the English, and ventured far into the interior. It is said that he was the first to describe the White Mountains, if not the first to venture among them. Another thing that distinguished him from other Englishmen, was the fact that he always opposed the giving of rum to the Indians.

Gorges sent out other expeditions, which, for various reasons, had no satisfactory results, though one of his mariners discovered Long Island Sound. The Northern Company of Plymouth had much difficulty about its charter at this time, not being satisfied with the relations which they bore to the Virginian colony. The French here put in a claim that the London Company was encroaching on the south. The Dutch had begun to creep in the slip which was left between the boundaries designated by the London and Plymouth grants. Just how all of this was finally divided up, it would be wearisome to

write, and wearisome to read, and, since none of the grants were very enduring, it is perhaps best to pass over the geographical division.

But one of these, the Laconia grant, given in 1623, should be especially mentioned, because from it came the settlement of New Hampshire. This was owned by Gorges and John Mason, and these two men sent over a ship-load of settlers, some of whom were fishermen, and others farmers, with a supply of food and tools. A part of this company settled at Strawberry Bank, which they named because of the beautiful wild strawberries growing rank over the fields. What was Strawberry Bank, is now Portsmouth, New Hampshire. The other party went up the river a few miles and settled the plantation of Dover, which was very near the place where the present city of Dover stands.

About this time, the English trade on the American coast had so increased, that in one year fifty ships came into English ports, with cargoes of various sorts, from America.

The settlement of the Maine coast went on slowly. Many expeditions were sent out, which promised, in the beginning, to be successful, but the Englishmen seem to have been afflicted with home-sickness, and were forever leaving their cabins on that stern coast and going back to their milder country. A certain merry captain, by the name of Levitt, started a plantation at the place he called York, which stands near the present city of York, and many other men built similar plantations, and fishers scattered huts along the beach, which protected them upon their fishing expeditions. At this time, all of the Plymouth company was under charge of the Governor, Robert Gorges, the son of Ferdinando. He visited America, but did not like the country, and only remained a few months. It was not until 1625 that the company from Bristol, under the patronage of Robert Aldworth and Giles Eldridge, came to Monhegan Island, which these two wealthy merchants had purchased. They also bought the Point of Pemaquid, and established there a vigorous colony. A little later, the towns of Biddeford and Saco were founded by Richard Vines and John Oldham. In 1631 Mason and Gorges divided their grant, drawing the boundary between Maine and New Hampshire, Mason taking New Hampshire, and Gorges such portion of Maine as belonged to him. Gorges offered to bring planters to his dominion, promising to give them land at a very low rate, and, if they would consent to form a city or town, to give them such laws and liberties as they had enjoyed in England. His system of law-giving had in it a touch of feudalism, although this arose from its simplicity, and not from any desire of Gorges to play the tyrant. He did more than any other one

man in the Northern Company towards settling America, but his reputation had suffered, because he was thought to have prejudices against the Puritans, who by this time were clinging like barnacles to the stern rocks of Plymouth.

More interesting to the present American than the details and dates, is the life of those early settlers. One likes to think about them living among these magnificent Maine woods, which already began to furnish the ships of the rich countries of the Old World with spars and masts. The colonists were poor, it is true, but their wants were few. People of all stations made their morning and evening meal of boiled corn and milk, or pork and beans, or pork and peas. They drank home-made beer and cider. Tea and coffee were not yet brought to this country. Their bread was usually of rye and Indian meal. They were not gay people like the French. They lived sternly, with rigid laws, and had a very high standard of morality. If vice was not punished with death, it was followed with such disgrace that the culprit had no longer any desire to live among his old friends. The laws here, however, were much milder than those of the other New England colonies, and people persecuted by the Puritans found that they could take refuge in Maine. On the other hand, there were disadvantages in being so close to Canada, for the French and Indians continually threatened the English colonies, and many Englishmen were carried captive up through that gap called Crawford's Notch, where the Sago river winds in creek-like narrowness, and which Richard Vines was the first white man to pass through. The traditions of Crawford's Notch are many and pathetic.

The Indians had good cause to be bitter. There were acts of such wanton cruelty and contempt on the part of the settlers that the Indians would have been less than human had they not retaliated. At one time Massachusetts, fearing for the remote New Hampshire settlements, sent one hundred and thirty men to Dover to join the force of Major Waldron, who commanded there. He desired to punish the Indians for some massacres of which they had been guilty, and gave orders to his men to seize all of the Indians who had been guilty of murder. He invited the Indians, who were disposed for peace, to come to him under flag of truce. This was in 1671. He then drew his men up in line of battle, and asked the Indians to take part in a mock training. Anything of this sort suited their nature well, and they went at the sport with enthusiasm. At the command to fire, their muskets were emptied into the air, and then the troops closed around them, and took them all prisoners at the point of the bayonet. It had been

Major Waldron's intention to retain only those interested in the massacre referred to—which was not extensive, though very heart-rending in its details—but little care was taken to look into the personal character of the Indians, and two hundred were sent to Boston and sold as slaves. It is no wonder that such treachery was punished. Murders among the outlying farms became frequent, and in 1689 Major Waldron's mock training bore its fruit. He had sown the wind and reaped the whirlwind.

At Dover, there were five garrison houses, secure and well built. With such protection Waldron thought the people safe, and allayed the suspicion of some, who noticed the unusual actions among the Indians, by telling them to go back to their pumpkin planting; that he could attend to the Indians. One fair June day, at every garrison house two squaws asked that they might be allowed to spend the night. The people let them in. At midnight the squaws arose, unbolted the gates and admitted the Indians. Old Major Waldron, now eighty years of age, was sleeping securely in his bed when the savages entered, fierce with a pent-up indignation of thirteen years. His determination and strength had not deserted him for all of his old age, and he drove the Indians from room to room by the soldierly method in which he handled his sword. But their number was too great for him. They seated themselves at the table, on which they had placed Major Waldron in a chair. The women of the house they forced to serve them. After they had eaten, each of the Indians slit some part from the body of the Major. His nose, ears and right hand were cut off, and when, at last, he failed from loss of blood, they held a sword so that he might fall upon it. Everything of value was taken from the house, and it was set on fire. Throughout the settlement there was a general conflict. Twenty-three persons were killed, and twenty-nine were taken to Canada and sold to the French. But it was the stealing of women and children from the farm-houses, the terrible captivity, the long marches, the strange and savage life, not unfrequently accompanied by torture, which held the people in the northern settlements in the greatest fear. The details of the various fights with the Indians are too sad to tell. There was no time entirely free from hostility, and, in 1690, when the Governor of Canada organized expeditions of French and Indians against the colonists in New England and New York, and the northern settlements, of course, suffered intensely. Traditions of great heroism have come down from those times. The endurance of the people was wonderful, and it is difficult for us to believe how much they could undergo and live.

The settlements of Maine, Vermont and New Hampshire have now been touched upon. Their colonies grew very slowly. At one time New Hampshire was connected with Massachusetts in government, and at another time with New York, but finally, in 1741, it became a separate province, with a royal governor, who lived in great elegance at Portsmouth. Englishmen of great wealth and learning settled here, building substantial houses and furnishing them with massive and costly goods. The northern townships constantly filled with immigrants from Scotland and Ireland, and, by the time of the American Revolution, New Hampshire was a very sturdy and independent colony.

It was one hundred years from the time that Champlain first entered Vermont that the European settlers built there, and, until the time of the Revolution, it was not known as a separate colony, but was called New Hampshire grants.

FOR FURTHER READING:

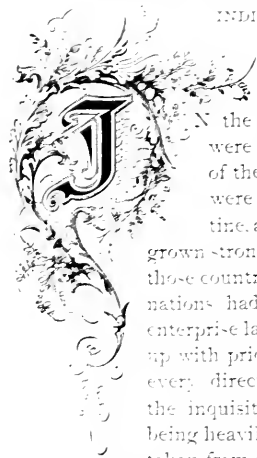
HISTORY—Parkman's "The Old Regime in Canada,"
Beamish's "History of Nova Scotia,"
Belknap's "New Hampshire."



CHAPTER XI.

The Dutchmen of New Netherland.

THE SETTLEMENT OF NEW YORK—THE DUTCH: THEIR EXPLORATIONS
AND SETTLEMENTS—THEIR DEALINGS WITH THE
INDIANS—THEIR SUCCESS.



At the beginning of the seventeenth century there were three European colonies established—none of them very strong. This was when the French were still in Acadia, the Spanish at St. Augustine, and the English on the James river. Spain had grown strong in Mexico and Peru, and in the conquest of those countries had gained enormous riches, but the other nations had received little return for the money and enterprise lavished upon the New World. Spain, puffed up with pride, here lost, by following a selfish policy in every direction. The Indians were being persecuted, the inquisition was in force and the Netherlands were being heavily oppressed. Great sums of money had been taken from the Netherlands, and a revenue drawn from them out of all proportion to their possessions. They were intelligent and liberal people, but were not allowed to have institutions of the sort that they demanded, and were treated more like slaves than a nation of great merchants and farmers. A most brutal governor was placed over them, and out of his cruelty grew the long series of wars, which finally ended in a struggle for independence. At the close of it, the Netherlands became one of the most vigorous nations of Europe, and a refuge for all who were oppressed in other countries. Everyone knows how they seemed to snatch their lands from the very arms of the ocean. Their farms flourished with wonderful luxuriance. Their cities became leading commercial cities of the world, and their dykes barred the ocean from their possessions, only admitting it when it could aid them. The East India trade, which for so many years was one of the chief

sources of income to Europe, was almost monopolized by them, and they had the sole right to send trading vessels around the Cape of Good Hope and through the Straits of Magellan. They also established a company for the purpose of trading at the West Indies, though for some time this was not successful. As their interests were so associated with those of the East Indies, they, as well as other nations, had looked for that never-to-be-found northwest passage. The voyages which they sent out were many, but all of them failed. At last their little country, which gave out such wonders of wealth, seemed to be cultivated almost to its last acre, and they began to turn their eyes toward the New World.

They had watched the English voyages with much interest, and had heard of the skill of a certain navigator, Henry Hudson, who had been employed in one of these expeditions. For this man they sent, and signed a contract with him which was to give him a certain sum of gold for his family during his absence, and to give his widow a sum of money in the event of his death, if he would search to the best of his ability for the pathway to India. On Saturday, the 4th of April, 1609, Hudson sailed from Amsterdam, on the *Half Moon*. His crew was composed of English and Dutch sailors—rather an unfortunate combination. The *Half Moon* went up the Norway coast toward North Cape, and toward Nova Zembla; but so crowded was the sea with jangling bergs and floating cakes of ice, and so impatient was his crew, that he was obliged to turn back. Acting upon their advice, he concluded to sail westward, and, reaching the American coast, to search for the possibility of an opening, by way of a river, to the desired Indian sea. He anchored in Penobscot Bay on July 18th, and remained there several days, while his crew repaired the vessel. They treated the Indians in a murderous way, and found it necessary to leave the bay in haste. He went close to the entrance of Chesapeake Bay, but did not visit his friends at Jamestown, perhaps because he did not wish to be seen in the service of another country. He turned northward again, and coasted until the 2d of September, when he reached a most beautiful bay, and saw the hills of Neversink to the northward. The men were delighted with the wonderful harbor that lay before them, and passed beyond Sandy Hook, up into the Narrows. The small boats were put out to explore and fish, and on the 4th of August the first European stepped upon Coney Island. Finally the strait beyond the Narrows was explored, and grassy shores, pleasant flowers and goodly trees were all examined. They had a disastrous encounter with the Indians, who killed one of the sailors and wounded two others and

then Hudson decided to push his boat up the great river which opened before him. It was in the midst of August, and oppressively hot, though clear.

It can easily be imagined that the hills of Staten Island and all those wonderful woods of Long Island were at their best. The boat went up with the tide, anchoring at night. The Indians were much delighted with the novel sight, and crowded out to the ship, bringing corn and tobacco with them. Nearly two centuries of civilization have not been able to spoil the Hudson, but one can guess that it must have been even more majestic then than now. So silent was it, so wild and rugged, that the sailors were awe-stricken as their boat turned slowly up the stream, and floated by the wooded hills and the Palisades to the Highlands. At length the stream got too narrow for the *Half Moon* to go farther, and Hudson was obliged to content himself by sending portions of his crew, in small boats, as far as the present site of Albany. With much regret, he was forced to believe that this was only a river running north, through which he could hope to find no opening to India. It was then that Hudson gave to certain Indian chiefs, with whom he had had pleasant trading, the banquet which lived in Indian tradition one hundred years, and which even the Dutch settlers along the banks of the Hudson have been glad to relate of Hendrick Hudson and his merry crew. The Indians saw him depart with much regret, for he had furnished them with a very novel excitement; but it seemed as if Europeans were never to visit this country without being guilty of some act of great injustice to the natives. Hudson's men did not leave the beautiful "River by the Mountains," as they called it, without brutally killing a couple of Indians. The affair led to a general fight. Hudson started for Holland, but stopped at Dartmouth harbor, in England, and was held there by the English government, which saw that it had made a mistake in letting a man of such ability pass into the employ of a foreign nation. He was retained in the service of the Moscovy Company, for which he had previously sailed, and in 1610, made that last fatal voyage to the northwest, when he discovered the bay which bears his name. There among that white and desolate waste his men mutinied, tied him hand and foot and threw him on board a boat, with his son and a few companions. No one ever heard of him afterwards, but the little children living up among the highlands on the Hudson river still say, when the thunder rolls, "There are Hendrick Hudson and his crew playing nine-pins among the hills."

Holland did not seem to be especially interested in Hudson's



Th. Jefferson

discoveries. It was not anxious, like Spain and England, for great territorial possessions. Since it could not have the northwest passage, it cared little about America and her virgin soil. But, though the government was indifferent to the matter, certain private merchants thought they saw a way to make much money, by exchanging trifles for costly furs. The experiment worked well, and, in a short time, a very brisk trade had sprung up between the Indians and the Dutch; the funny little vessels of the Hollanders going along the coast and up the streams, visiting the Indian hamlets and giving a few beads, or some other such trumpery, in exchange for beautiful skins. A sort of fort and store-house was built on Manhattan Island, as a station for their wares. The Netherland merchants soon saw that they had struck a good thing, and began to push their territory north and south. Incidentally, they added some fresh discoveries to the few which their country had made. Among the captains distinguished in these discoveries were Hendrick Christaensen, Adriaen Block and Cornelis Jacobsen May. Adriaen Block was the first European to pass through Hurlgate. This was in 1614. He, too, discovered and named the rocky little island which raises its head fifteen miles out of the New York harbor, and which bears his name to this day. He spent the winter of 1613-14 on Manhattan Island, having lost his ship, the *Tiger*, by fire, and finding it necessary to build another. This he named the *Onrust*, meaning the restless. It was he who first traversed Long Island Sound and sailed up the Connecticut river. He went along the New England coast as far as Nahant, and called that the limit of New Netherland. He entered the blue Narragansett Bay, and saw there the red island, or Roode Island, as he called it, from which our State of Rhode Island takes its name. Cape May was named after Captain May. Hendrick Christaensen built the first great trading post up the Hudson river, on Castle Island, close by Albany. He was an excellent agent, of adventurous spirit, and was rapidly acquiring power and wealth, when he was killed by an Indian whom he had taken on a voyage to Holland, but had safely restored to his home. His position as Governor was taken by Jacob Eelkens. Out of the many Dutch navigators, these three men are especially remembered for their faithful services to Holland.

The merchants who had first opened trade about Manhattan and the Hudson became alarmed at the number who had followed their example, and succeeded in getting an ordinance to protect themselves. In this charter the name of New Netherland was officially given to that strip

of land which lay between the 40th and 45th degrees, and which had the London Company upon one side and the Plymouth Company on the other. This was four years from the time that Hendrick Hudson's men pushed the *Half Moon* into the Narrows. The merchants desired that this be given them for a term of three years, for they saw nothing in the venture except chances for successful trade. They were satisfied with their own, which, indeed, was the most advanced of the age, and, having no desire to settle on their new possessions, merely wished to get what wealth they could out of it. Their trading grounds extended widely, and their relations with the Indians were friendly. The shores of Delaware Bay and river were explored, and the trade for seal skins opened with the natives. They went as far south as the cape they named Henlopen, and wished to have a charter for the ground to this limit, but the Republic of Holland was afraid that it might be an encroachment upon the bounds of Virginia, and refused. The trading post on Castle Island was moved to a safer spot, where the spring freshets could not disturb it, and put in a more secure building. In 1618, the charter for which the Holland merchants had asked expired, but they continued to trade with much the same freedom as before, and with so overbearing a policy that few ventured to trespass upon the ground which they claimed. So, in 1621, the West India Company, which had never really done anything previous to this, secured a charter which gave it great power. Among other things, its authority over the Dutch territory in America was absolute. It had a right to appoint all of the governing officers, and to rule with what laws it chose. It was to build forts, and to insure the protection of its own possessions. It had a board of nineteen delegates in the brave little country at home, and these ruled the great stretch of land by the Hudson. Thirty-two vessels-of-war and eighteen armed yachts were at the service of the company, in case it needed protection.

The first ship which went over with settlers was in 1623. On her was a large company of Walloons. These Walloons were not Dutchmen, but Frenchmen, who had been driven from their home on account of their religion, to find a settlement in free Holland, for in France they had been treated in a most cruel and relentless manner. They were a class quite by themselves, and had kept, for many generations, their old French words and customs, so that they neither belonged to France of that day nor to any other country. They were quite distinguished for their mechanical cleverness, and for their saving industry. It is easy to see how such people should have an ambition to

enter a country which they could call their own, and the West India directors, hearing of this aspiration, made them offers which they accepted. They sailed under Captain Cornelis Jacobsen May, and settled on the site of Albany. In a short time they had a group of comfortable bark houses, a goodly field of corn, and a pier, at which the round-prowed vessels of the Dutch could anchor. A part of the Walloons, and of the New Netherland passengers also, settled at Fort Orange. Some went to the north of the Connecticut river, and others to the western end of Long Island. A fort was built on the South river, and a trading establishment on Manhattan Island. So the Dutch now traded peaceably along the coast of the New Netherlands, and, being thrifty people, who were willing to treat the Indians with fairness, and with a love for buying and selling, they soon became quite prosperous. The Dutch settlements had three different governors during this period of its existence, the last of whom, Peter Minnet, succeeded, after a series of successes and mistakes, in making Manhattan the central point of interest. The first pictures of this are very curious. They show groups of new buildings of wood and bark, and Fort Amsterdam, with its quadrangular stone walls, and a great, awkward Dutch wind-mill, which the ships in the harbor dwarfed to insignificant size. Under Peter Minnet, the colonists tried to come to an understanding with the Plymouth Company, but, though many courtesies were exchanged on both sides, the English frankly said that they considered the Dutch intruders.

A great need was felt for some more substantial scheme of government. It was evident that the Dutch were not sufficiently interested in the country to which they had come, and that it was a mistake to take all of the products to Holland and bring so few in return.

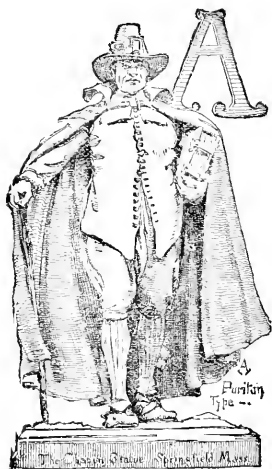
FOR FURTHER READING.

- HISTORY—Dunlap's "History of New Netherlands,"
Barnes' "Early History of Albany,"
Clute's "Annals of Staten Island,"
FICTION—Irving's "Knickerbocker History,"
Irving's "Legend of Sleepy Hollow,"
Mrs. H. F. Parker's "Constance Aylmer."

CHAPTER XII.

The Mayflower.

THE PURITANS—THEIR TRIALS AND WANDERINGS—THE LANDING AT
PLYMOUTH ROCK—THE FIRST WINTER.



NOVELIST feels at liberty to go from one place to another, that he may keep the reader advised as to what all his characters are doing, in different places, and under different circumstances. History, like fiction, forces the writer to constantly go back, and reach his Rome by another road. The Dutch had become well acquainted with what we call New York before the greatest of all the colonies was settled, that of Plymouth. No other colony has such a fascination for the American reader. No other seemed to hold in it, to such an extent, the elements which went to make up the best in our republic. These people, as well as the settlers of Manhattan, came from Holland, though they were Englishmen. For

years the Puritans had been persecuted in England. The cause for their persecution was, that they objected to the ritual of the Church of England, and desired to have a simple gospel, with unpretentious teachings. They did not believe in what they called the Anti-Christian greatness and tyrannical power of the established church. This frame of mind was an offshoot of the Reformation. James I had no patience with these Puritans. He boasted of having peppered them soundly, and was well pleased with any one of his magistrates, or sheriffs, who persecuted them. They were scattered throughout England, and existed in large numbers in Yorkshire, Lincolnshire, and Nottinghamshire. They were inspired by certain simple orators, who had a remarkable gift of eloquence. Almost all of the Puritans were yeomen, simple, sturdy

folk, direct of speech, and strong of muscle. They were acquainted with no luxuries, although they seemed to have had enough money to enable them to emigrate to another country, when they found that they could no longer live, in liberty, in their own. They were not without education, and one of their chief ambitions was to send their sons to the universities. Being educated, they were all the more determined to protect their rights, and to insist upon being allowed to worship after their own manner; therefore, when they were hunted and imprisoned, their houses beset with spies, and their means of livelihood taken from them, they decided to leave England. In this, Brewster, their leader, a man of much experience, who had been a successful courtier and an office-holder under the government, sustained them. But though the English did not wish them within their neighborhood, neither did they seem to wish them to leave. It may have been, merely, that they never allowed them to do anything they wanted to do. On several occasions, when the Puritans had secured means of reaching Holland, where they understood every one was allowed to follow his own faith, they were detained by mobs of people and brought back, to suffer the jeers and cruelties of the hard-hearted people about them. Imprisonment was the general punishment for any such attempt to escape. At length they engaged a Dutch ship to take them on board, at a quiet place between Hull and Grimsby. They gathered from various directions, with all of their goods which they could carry, and were waiting there when a mob of country people, armed with all sorts of rude weapons, rushed upon them. A boat load of Puritan men had been taken to the ship, and these had to witness the cruelty with which their wives and children and the small force of men left on shore were treated. The ship-master of the Dutch ship, frightened at what he saw, set sail, and carried the despairing men out to sea. The greater part of the unfortunate Puritans who were left on shore were arrested. After this their experiences were most pitiful. No magistrate seemed willing to decide upon their case, and they were driven from one place to another, until their money was exhausted, and all of their goods lost. Finally, some people of note and money were moved by their pathetic condition, and secured means by which they reached Holland, where they were united with their friends. In the midst of opulent Holland they succeeded, in spite of their simple ways and meagre experiences, in earning a living, and were always treated with kindness and consideration by the Dutch. But as time passed on, they felt it a pity that their English children should grow up in the midst of Dutch

surroundings, learning a foreign language and strange, un-English ways. It is not strange that the reports of America delighted them. They believed it to be a land where they would have fewer difficulties to struggle with, and where they might find an Eldorado where gold was plenty and ease ensured. They corresponded, therefore, with some of the leading men of Jamestown, especially with Sir Edward Sandys, who had been a friend of Brewster years before.

He probably advised them to obtain a patent, for they sent two of their most trusty men, Robert Cushman and John Carver, to England to see if the king would grant them one. After many delays and much evasion on the part of the king, they got one, although it was never used. It was a grant of land somewhere near the mouth of the Hudson river, and the Puritans, who were under obligations to the Dutch, probably did not feel as if they cared to infringe upon their trading ground. Holland offered them its protection, but this also was refused, being unwilling to vex their native countrymen, the English. It will be seen that they were very wary and discreet people, anxious to be at peace with everyone.

In the month of July, 1620, at the Puritan Church in Leyden, Holland, the good pastor, Robinson, held a day of prayer, singing many psalms and feasting. The last night they spent with their friends in a long, long talk, and in the morning departed very sorrowfully, with many tears, from the spot which had been their dwelling-place for twelve years. The two ships, the *Speedwell* and *Mayflower*, carried one hundred and twenty people from Southampton, on August 5th, but the *Speedwell* proved unseaworthy, and the *Mayflower* finally went alone, carrying one hundred and two persons for the new colony, besides the crew. The ship was not strong, and half way across the ocean they were on the point of returning, but prayerfully decided to go on, and, on the 9th of November, saw Cape Cod. They cast anchor in the harbor, where they could be free from the winds, and a few of them went on shore, where they fell upon their knees and thanked God for the perils which they had escaped, and for the new life which was opening before them. More than a month was spent in looking for a spot where they might settle. During this time they made a compact of government, in which it was agreed that they should bind themselves into a civil body politic for their ordering and preservation, and should feel at liberty to enact laws from time to time for the good of the colony. All of the profits in trading, fishing, planting or anything else, were to go, for a period of seven years, into common stock, and at the end of

that time were to be equally divided among all who had contributed money to the enterprise, and those who had engaged in it personally. Every person over sixteen years of age was rated as owning a single share, or ten pounds, and if he provided his own outfit to the amount of ten pounds, he was entitled to two shares. This was according to the advice of Thomas Weston, who had helped to supply ships and money for the enterprise. The captain of the *Mayflower* was impatient to land his passengers and return to England, and, therefore, they landed at last upon this "stern and rock-bound coast." Many journeys were made to the mainland, and one place was found where there were corn-fields, and little brooks of running water. Here it was decided to build the colony, and on the 15th of December, the *Mayflower* left her harbor at Cape Cod, and dropped her anchor half way between Plymouth and Clark's Island. Ten days later a shallop left the ship with the distinct purpose of landing the pilgrims upon the spot of their future home. Men, women and children went to look it over and say what they thought about it. The first shallop was filled with sailors, for the most part, but there were a few women aboard, and in the prow sat John Alden, the young scholar, and Mary Chilton, a gay young girl, who was the first to spring upon the rock. It was not until the 21st of March that all of the company went on shore. Shelter was still insufficient, and provisions were poor and scanty. Disease began to spread among them, and when spring came, almost one-half of the little company was dead. Miles Standish, the stalwart captain, was a widower, and half a dozen of the most reliable men of the company were in the same unfortunate state. John Carver, the Governor, died in April. Mary Chilton, the light-hearted girl, was left an orphan. There was great fear from the Indians, although they did not disturb them. One can see, in imagination, their poor little houses, built of logs, cemented with mortar, the low, thatched roofs, and the oil-paper which served as window glass. Side by side in the rooms stood the beds, as many as could be crowded into an apartment. There was a great shed for the public goods, and a melancholy little hospital for the sick. On the top of the church stood the four brass cannons, pointing toward the several directions.

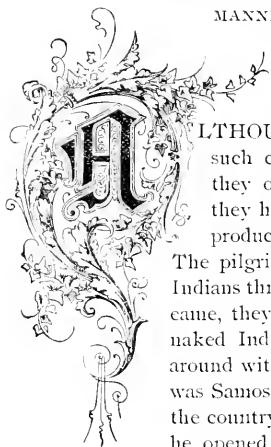
FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY**—Palfrey's and Elliott's "New England."
 Barry's "Massachusetts."
 Young's "Chronicles of Massachusetts."
FICTION—L. M. Child's "Hobomoc."
 H. V. Cheney's "A Peep at the Pilgrims."
 J. L. Motley's "Merry Mount."
POETRY—Longfellow's "Courtship of Miles Standish."
 Mrs. Heman's "Landing of the Pilgrims."
 Rev. John Pierpont's "The Pilgrim Fathers."

CHAPTER XIII.

The Daily Round.

THE NEXT THREE YEARS—THE ORDER, CIVIL, MARTIAL AND RELIGIOUS, WHICH THEY MAINTAINED—THE MANNER OF THEIR DAILY LIVING, ETC.



ALTHOUGH we now see fit to hold the Indians in such contempt, the early settlers realized that they owed much to them. Such knowledge as they had of planting corn and other indigenous productions, they had to thank the Indians for.

The pilgrims at Plymouth had seen but little of the Indians through their tedious winter, but when March came, they were surprised one day by the sight of a naked Indian walking into their camp and looking around with unfeigned curiosity. This man's name was Samoset, and he gave them much knowledge of the country and of the Indians near them. Indeed, he opened friendly relation between them and the Indians round about, for he was able to speak the

English tongue, having had dealings with certain explorers, whose settlements had been unsuccessful. Samoset introduced them to Massasoit, the Sagamore of that region. These northern Indians seem to have lacked that dignity of carriage and grace of manner, which made the Indians of the islands in the West Indies so attractive. Samoset had an Indian friend who visited the colony much, and taught the colonists many things, for which they owed him a great debt of gratitude, and he, later, acted as guide for the ambassadors from the colony, when they made their treaty of peace with the surrounding Indians. The health of the people improved as the soft New England spring opened, and they gained courage from the very influence of the budding vegetation about them, and from the sea, which was always in sight. The ground was carefully cultivated, and fishing became a fine art, so that at last it

became possible for them to make journeys into the country, and become acquainted with the region about them. They explored the cape, and went as far as Boston harbor, and were filled, it is said, with regret that they did not settle upon this pleasanter spot, which was so sheltered and secure, compared to the bold and barren place which they had selected in the dreary January weather. The summer passed, and in November, a ship came from England. It was the first news that they had heard from home, and the eagerness with which they read their letters, and received their share of the supplies, can better be imagined than described. The *Fortune* brought, also, a new patent, issued to John Pierce and associates by the Plymouth Company, and for the first time establishing the Puritans legally.

The London adventurers had the hardihood to send a letter filled with reproaches that the *Mayflower* had been sent to England without a cargo from America. They seemed to have no thought of the difficulties which the colonists had had in merely preserving life and beginning their settlement. What they expected as a cargo they did not say. There could have been very little to send them at that time. Bradford was now Governor, and he returned a quiet letter, that so general had been the disease through the winter, that the living had scarcely been able to bury the dead, and the well not in any means sufficient to attend the sick. However, they succeeded in putting some lumber and peltry on the *Fortune*, on her home voyage, only a part of which reached England, as she encountered a French ship, which overhauled her. The second winter passed calmly, and with much less suffering than the previous one. It was a very orderly community, not indulging in much pleasure, and yet not without quiet enjoyment. There were few books in the colony besides the Bible and hymn book, of which, indeed, there were very few copies.

A little revelry was attempted on Christmas day, by some of the young men who had come over in the *Fortune*, but this was promptly checked by Governor Bradford. The young men had said that it was against their conscience to work on Christmas day, and had, therefore, been excused from their tasks, but when the Governor returned at noon and found them playing at ball and pitching quoits in the street, he remarked that it was against his conscience to let others play while he worked. No doubt, however, there was good fellowship among the people, and many an hour of not unpleasant gossip in the twilight. The firm, religious faith of the people, and their sincere devotional exercises, were a great source of gladness and strength to them, and a help to that

statesman-like order which made their little settlement so admirable. The Narragansett Indians at one time showed hostile intentions. The best description of their dealings with the colonists can be found in Longfellow's "Courtship of Miles Standish." They sent a bundle of arrows, tied together with the skin of a rattlesnake. It was a challenge to war. Miles Standish, swelling with rage, stuffed the snake skin full of bullets and returned it. It was answer enough. The Narragansetts left the colonists undisturbed, but it was thought best to palisade the town, and to keep the men in martial order, ready at any time for an attack. Toward spring, a fort was built on the spot called Burial Hill.



MILES STANDISH FILLING THE RATTLESNAKE SKIN WITH BULLETS

In the summer of 1622, a number of men were sent to the colony, who were of a very vicious nature, and this occasioned the first actual difficulty with the Indians. They were a lazy, mischievous and disorderly set of men, whom it was a great burden for the colony to support. It became necessary to send them away, such an offense were they to the upright and moral founders of the community, and Plymouth rejoiced greatly when these unruly fellows set up a separate colony at Wessagusset, which we know as Weymouth. The manner in which these young men treated the Indians was shameful. Not only did they deal unfairly with them, but were guilty of actual crimes toward them, and toward their women, which made them most obnoxious. Even an Indian is a judge of character, and they soon perceived

that they had to do with a lot of bullies, who, like all people of their class, were lacking in true courage. One of the colonists stole corn from the Indians, and his fellows decided to hang him, to appease their wrath. They had some doubt, however, about the advisability of wasting a strong and vigorous man, as the culprit chanced to be, and it was proposed by an economical wag to hang an old and feeble man in his place, but fortunately for the old and feeble man, this was overruled. So offensive did this colony become that the Massachusetts Indians finally made up their minds to kill the whole of them off, and be well rid of them. They supposed that such an act would greatly offend the Plymouth colonists and call for active revenge, and, therefore, thought it best to kill all of the English. A very slight accident prevented the entire massacre of the colonists. Massasoit, the great Sagamore, fell very sick, and two delegates from the Plymouth company were sent to his place to express sympathy, and give help, if possible. They found the chief very ill, but by careful nursing and some simple medicine, restored him to health. The gratitude of the Sagamore was great, and he revealed the plan against the colonists. Captain Standish started out with eight sturdy men, and visited their disorderly neighbors at Wessagusset. He found them in a bad state, physically and morally, and quite unwilling to do anything in their own defense. Standish, therefore, engaged in a hand-to-hand struggle with the chiefs of the hostile tribes, and succeeded in killing two of them. Afterward, there followed a skirmish in an open field, but without loss. The head of one of the chiefs was taken to Plymouth, and exposed as a warning to the natives. As for the Wessagusset men, part of them went up to the Maine colonies, and the rest joined the pilgrims at Plymouth. The peace-keeping Puritans over in Holland heard of this engagement with deep regret. They could not well understand how their old friends should have reached a point where they could shed blood. It was quite impossible for them to know anything about the conditions.

A little later than this, another colony was started by Robert Gorges, who was now Governor of the entire territory known as Massachusetts, upon the very spot where the Wessagusset colony had been, but his people became discouraged in a short time and only a handful remained.

So dissatisfied did the people become with their articles of agreement with the London adventurers, which called for so much work, and from which they personally reaped no benefit, that it became necessary to make some change. They followed the example of the

Virginian colony, and gave to each man a certain quantity of land to work on his own account. As in Virginia, also, this was the beginning of prosperity. The colonists took a deeper interest in the land which they now could call their own.

At another time they had a struggle to preserve their independence, because John Pierce, procuring a second patent, wished to make them his tenants. This would have started a land system like that in England, but, fortunately for the colonists, Pierce met with such losses in sending a ship to America that he was persuaded to return the grant. The Puritans still remaining in Holland were very anxious to join their friends in Plymouth, but the London Company objected to this, and wished to force upon the devout Puritans people of a different sort. To this end they sent over a minister, named Lyford. He had been in Plymouth but a short time when he tried to introduce the old service of the Church of England. The Puritans resented this with pride and fierceness, and finally sent the minister and his friends from the colony. He had drawn about him many discontented spirits, among them John Oldham, who was finally expelled, with much disgrace, at the butt ends of the muskets of the sturdy Puritans. The company in London defended the action of Lyford, and finally refused to be responsible for the fate of the Puritans. This left the colonies without protection. They could no longer rely upon supplies from England, and were left to work out their own destiny. With such brave and stalwart men, nothing better could have happened. To be independent with them was to be successful. They sent for their friends in Leyden, but their dear old pastor, Robinson, whom they looked forward with so much pleasure to meeting, died, like Moses, in sight of the promised land. The colonists did not hear the last of Lyford for some time, for the London adventurers saw fit to send him over again to found a colony upon Cape Ann, a district which the pilgrims protested belonged to them, by right of a patent made out to Robert Cushman and Winslow. The choleric Miles Standish nearly got into an engagement with the Englishmen at Cape Ann, but finally made a compromise, by which they were to work together in the production of salt, and so lived amicably. But this colony came to little, though a company was formed at Dorchester, England, which sent out for three successive years men and cattle. The colonists went back to England, or scattered along the coast, and a few of them settled on the spot we now call Salem. Meanwhile, the Plymouth colonists had got some cattle, three heifers, and a great white bull.

The days went on peacefully now. On Sundays, everyone who was not sick met at the little church. The men sat upon one side and the women on the other, with those of noble rank quite by themselves. The little boys, very impatient at the long service, were crowded on the pulpit stairs and guarded by constables. These constables each had a wand, with a hare's foot on one end, and a hare's tail on the other. They used this to keep the people from sleeping. A woman's forehead, if by any chance she nodded, was only touched with the tail, but if any naughty little boy went to sleep, he was promptly pounded with the hare's foot. The services were three or four hours long, and the sexton stood near the minister, turning over the great hour-glass as it emptied. It was not until 1836 that they got the Metrical Bay Psalm-Book, with its great black notes and rugged lettering. They knew less than a dozen tunes, and sung these over and over, year in and year out. The houses were scrupulously neat. Most of them were one story in height, built of logs, with very steep roofs. In course of time a few wood and brick houses were built, two stories high in front, and one behind. The windows had many panes, and opened on hinges like a casement, and the huge fire-places admitted logs which would burn for nearly the whole day. There were no clocks, only sun-dials, and many of the houses were built facing the south, so that the sun at noon would fall square on the floor, and tell them it was mid-day. The law allowed none of them to wear finery, unless he or she could prove that it could be afforded. All through the week the women wore homespun, and on Sunday brought out from their chests the silk hoods or lace neckerchiefs which had been brought across the sea. Miles Standish kept the soldiers well drilled. They had match-lock muskets, fired by a slow match instead of a percussion cap. So heavy were these weapons that even these sturdy soldiers had to have a large iron fork stuck in the ground to hold them. They were belted with bandoliers, which contained a sword and a dozen tin cartridge-boxes. Steel helmets and iron breast-plates were not unknown, although many of the colonists wore padded overcoats to keep off the arrows of the Indians. To be a voter, one must also be a church member. In everything, religion ruled. The State had no existence without the Church.

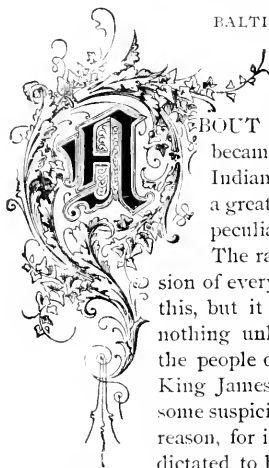
FOR FURTHER READING

- HISTORY—Cheever's "Journal of the Pilgrims at Plymouth."
 BIOGRAPHY—Anderson's "Women of the Puritan Times."
 FICTION—H. M. Whiting's "Faith White's Letter-Book."
 E. N. Sears' "Pictures of the Olden Times."
 Mrs. J. B. Webb's "The Pilgrims of New England."
 POETRY—Whittier's "The Garrison of Cape Ann."

CHAPTER XIV.

The Reward of Treachery.

THE MASSACRE AT JAMESTOWN—LORD BALTIMORE AND THE SETTLEMENT OF MARYLAND—THE LIBERAL LAWS OF THE BALTIMORE SETTLEMENT.



ABOUT the time that the little Plymouth colony became alarmed at the threatening attitude of the Indians, the colony in Jamestown, Virginia, suffered a great calamity. The condition of the colony was peculiar. In one way it did not lack prosperity. The raising of tobacco was continued to the exclusion of everything else. Laws were made to regulate this, but it is a well-known fact that a law is good for nothing unless the people will agree to enforce it, and the people of Virginia did not wish this law enforced. King James had begun to look upon the colony with some suspicion. He suspected treason, and not without reason, for it was quite true that they did not care to be dictated to by their governors at home. Sir Edward

Sandys was thought to be a man of too much intellect to safely act as treasurer of a community which was so rapidly increasing in power, and the Earl of Southampton was appointed in his place. Sir George Yeardley retired from the governorship in 1622, giving place to Sir Francis Wyat. These were all men of sense, and they did what they could for Virginia. They tried to raise grapes for the purpose of making wine, but they do not seem to have understood the art very well, for the wine had a trick of souring before they got ready to drink it. Mulberry trees and silk worms were brought over to start the cultivation of silk, but for all of that, most of the colonists were dressed in rags. Workmen were brought from Italy and employed in the glass works, and about the same time iron works were started. The Americans began making their own salt, and building their own ships,

and saw-mills were put up by Dutchmen, but this work was very slow, and none of it really successful. They spent all their time, strength and money in the raising of tobacco, so that, fourteen years after the colony was started, there was next to no barley, oats or peas in the country, and even at this period they were frequently threatened with starvation. In the meantime, they treated the Indians with the same selfishness and lack of wisdom which they showed in all other matters. The Indians had, no doubt, long intended to take revenge. However that may be, suddenly, on the 22d of March, 1692, the Indians, loitering about the village, rushed upon the people in the fields and in the houses and slaughtered them.

They did not even spare the little children, but killed all, regardless of the innocence of their victims. They went further than this, and hacked at the dead bodies with a wild cruelty of which only the American Indian is capable when he becomes imbruted by the sight of blood. The houses and barns of the people were burned and their animals killed. This did not occur in Jamestown, but in the little outlying villages and plantations. Jamestown would have suffered the same fate, but for the warning which one friendly Indian carried the night before. All who could, took refuge within the city, and took every possible means for defense. The panic was wide-spread. Some of the smaller places were entirely deserted, and it was many years before the plantations recovered from the harm which this did to them, for men were afraid to remain in isolated places. After this there was no mercy shown upon either side. The English were quite as cruel and remorseless as the Indians had been. The corn-fields, the fishing weirs, the villages of the natives, were entirely destroyed. Whenever a white man saw an Indian he shot him, and blood-hounds and mastiffs were trained to follow and tear them to pieces. The King seemed to blame the colonists for the present state of affairs. The company was still more dissatisfied than the King, and out of the various misunderstandings which grew from this, and the disregard the colony paid to the King's wishes, came the breaking up of the Virginia Company. The government of the colony was put into the hands of a commission, with Sir Thomas Smith at the head.

The unhappy people of Virginia were long in recovering from their calamity. The people were crowded once more into close quarters, and there was a great deal of sickness, of discouragement, and of hunger. Their viciousness took another, and yet more dreadful form. It was turned from wantonness and selfishness to revenge. They prayed, with

a show of devotion, that the Indians might fall into their hands to be murdered and bereft of all that they owned. There was no longer any show of Christian kindness. If the colonists were filled with revenge, they were none the less troubled with fear, and it was a long, long time before they dared venture back to the cultivation of their plantations. This great anxiety about home matters made them rather indifferent about the whims of the London Council, and they worried little because their patent was taken away from them. After King James died, very little attention was paid to them one way or the other, and if they received no benefit, neither did they receive any checks from across the ocean. Four colonial governors served in turn, but they were displaced for the first royal governor, Sir John Harvey, who was sent over by the English King to administer royal laws after the King's own views. How the people, who had so long been independent, detested this arrangement, can well be imagined.

Shortly before the appointment of Harvey, Jamestown had had a distinguished visitor. It was Lord Baltimore, a Catholic English nobleman of much wealth and culture. Virginia was quite in excitement about the visit of so distinguished a gentleman, and the council grew so curious that they officially inquired why he had come, and how long he was going to stay. The Virginians were neither the Church of England people nor Puritans—the Puritans having come later—and they objected to a settlement of Catholics among them. They, therefore, put the oath of allegiance to the colony to him, which was of such a nature that he could not take it, for religious reasons, and the colonists were glad of this excuse to ask him to return to England. Seeing that his visit was disagreeable, he courteously withdrew from the colony, but left his family behind him at Jamestown. One reason why he was disliked at the colony was because he was principal Secretary of the State to King James for the last five or six years of that monarch's life, and the difficulty between King James and the colony was naturally visited upon Lord Baltimore. He held a grant to some lands in the southeast part of Newfoundland, and had there a Protestant colony, which he had established. It was after visiting this, and finding the climate not to his liking or at all suited to his delicate health, that he came to Virginia. This was in the spring of 1629. Leaving Virginia, he visited Chesapeake Bay, was charmed with that region, and begged the King to give him a patent to it. This the King willingly did, but before the patent was signed, Lord Baltimore died, and it was left for his son to carry out his plans. The new Lord Baltimore named the

region Maryland, in honor of the Queen. The charter included all the country lying in the irregular triangle formed by the 40th degree of latitude, the Potomac river and Chesapeake Bay, as well as that part of the Peninsula between the ocean on the east, and Bay of Chesapeake on the west, with a line dividing it from the rest, drawn from the headland, called Watkins Point. With very slight changes, this is the State to-day. The grant gave this property to the Lords of Maryland absolutely, as long as they were faithful in their allegiance to the King. Not even taxes were required. No gift could have been more complete. All the acknowledgment required of Lord Baltimore was that twice a year he was to send to the King two Indian arrows as a token of fealty. But the charter did not overlook the rights of the colonists. It gave the people the right to call themselves together to take part in framing the laws which were to govern them. No religious nor political distinctions were made, but Maryland was to be the home of all Englishmen who wished to move there. Lord Baltimore found himself unable to go with the first expedition, and sent his brother Leonard in his stead, and with him two friends, also cultivated and able gentlemen, Jerome Hawley and Thomas Cornwallis. The Catholics were being greatly persecuted at this time, and Maryland became a refuge for them. In addition to the many gentlemen of wealth and influence who resorted thither, were many mechanics and laborers, and two Jesuit priests, whose simple and tender lives have made a white page in history. These were Father Andrew White and Father John Althan. The former of these wrote the only narrative which was kept of the experiences of the colony, which was composed of about three hundred souls. They were borne to America on *The Ark* and *The Dove*, starting November, 1633. They encountered many dangers on their passage from storms, pirates and war-like Spaniards, but at length reached Jamestown, where they were entertained for a week by Governor Harvey. The early part of March they sailed to their own possessions, and turning up the Potomac river, were enchanted with what they found. The groves of beneficent trees, the many inflowing streams and stately bluffs persuaded them that they could not have found a better place for a settlement. They landed first upon Blackstone Island, which then covered four hundred acres of land in the midst of the Potomac. It is now two centuries since, and nothing is left of these islands but sandy shoals. The 25th of March, the day of the landing, was the day of the annunciation of the most Holy Virgin, and they celebrated mass upon the beach, at the close of which they planted a cross

of wood upon the highest part of the island, taking possession of it for our Savior and for our Sovereign Lord, the King of England.

They used much tact in their first dealing with the Indians, asking permission of them to settle upon their land. It was a piece of good fortune for them that they chanced to meet with Captain Fleet, an Englishman, quietly trading in peltries upon his own account. He had been a prisoner for several years among the Indians, and was on excellent terms with them. Through his influence the colonists were soon in friendly trade with the natives, and the danger of hostility was averted. Fleet guided them through the forests and up the rivers, showing them the best points of the country, and advising them about the site of their first town; and at the end of the broad harbors on the noble bluff they decided to build. Behind it lay the beautiful valley which the people of Baltimore know, with growths of nut trees and oak and springs of clear water. On the bluff stood a huge mulberry tree, and standing by this, Leonard Calvert, the brother of Lord Baltimore, made his treaty with the Indians, who had a village upon that spot. The tribe was called Yaocomico, and for a certain payment in goods prized by the Indians, the strangers were to share their town with them until their harvest was gathered, after which the savages were to move elsewhere. The first village of Maryland was called St. Marys, and the expedition being managed by men of statesmen-like quality, and having in it workmen of strength and common sense, they immediately began building and planting. The Indians were of much help to them, teaching them not only how to plant native vegetables, but how to cook them in the best manner. Religious services were held from the first, and as soon as possible a neat little chapel was made. By the time the Indians had left them, quite a little town had been built, and some public buildings started on the bluff. Winter found them well provided, and already the liberality with which the government was conducted, began to invite the oppressed, not only from England, but from the Jamestown and Plymouth colonies as well, for in the Jamestown colonies Catholics were disapproved of, and in the Plymouth colonies the slightest deviation from the orthodox principles, as the Puritans held them, was promptly punished.

Lord Baltimore's city was the first one in America where every man was allowed to worship God after his own conscience.

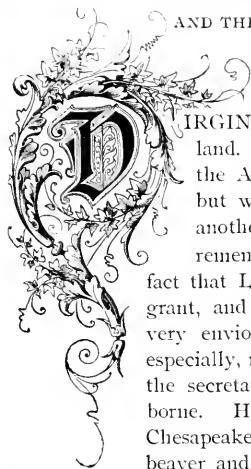
FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—McSherry's "Maryland."
Griffith's "Annals of Baltimore."
FICTION—Paulding's "Konigsmark."
Kennedy's "Rob of the Bowl."

CHAPTER XV.

The Peace-Keepers.

PROSPERITY OF THE MARYLAND SETTLEMENT—CONSPIRACIES AGAINST THEM—THE TRIUMPH OF VIRGINIA OVER THEM, AND THE PERSECUTION OF THE CATHOLICS—CALVERT'S SUCCESS AND THE RETURN OF THE JESUITS.



VIRGINIA disapproved of the new colony of Maryland. There was, certainly, ground enough upon the Atlantic coast for both of those settlements, but whether there was policy enough, was quite another question. The Virginians, it will be remembered, had lost their royal charter, and the fact that Lord Baltimore's colony came with the royal grant, and with the royal encouragement, made them very envious. One man in the Virginian colony, especially, resented the settlement of Maryland. It was the secretary of the Virginian Council, William Clayborne. He had taken possession of Kent Island, in Chesapeake Bay, and built a store-house there, for the beaver and other furs, in which he traded extensively.

When Baltimore's people came, Clayborne said that he owned the island, and he refused in advance to leave it.

The Virginians had sent a protest to the King against the settlement of Maryland, but it had been decided in England that Baltimore's patent should not be destroyed, and both colonies were advised to be as amiable as possible. Amiability, however, was not in Clayborne's line. He had worked hard upon the ground where the Marylanders now settled, and he felt that he had a right to it. Being a willful and strong-minded man, he took the worst methods for preserving that right. He incited the Indians against the colonists, who found it necessary to build a block-house for refuge, in case of attack; but as the Indians met with nothing but kindness from the settlers, they became persuaded at

length that Clayborne had misinformed them. The Marylanders tried to capture Clayborne, but he knew the ways of the woods too well for them to succeed, and reached Jamestown, where he worked upon the prominent men, and won them to his side of the case.

When the spring of 1635 came, and Clayborne wished to carry out his usual trading trip, he started for his island with a small vessel, called the *Long Tail*. The Marylanders met him with two armed pinnaces, under the command of Cornwallis. The *Long Tail* was seized after a vigorous fight, two of the Virginians being killed and one of Cornwallis' men. Then the people of Jamestown were in a great state of mind. They gathered in the streets, and talked and talked. They called an assembly and talked some more. No one had any sympathy with the Marylanders' defense of their property, except the royal Governor Harvey. So indignant did the people become with him that they sent him to England to be tried, but he was promptly sent back again by the King, with an inquiry as to what right they had to arrest a governor appointed by him.

The people in Maryland, finding that they were to be protected, went on working busily. Their harvest was a great success. They stored away enough corn for the winter, and sent one thousand bushels up to Plymouth, asking for salt-fish in exchange. The cattle and poultry which they had purchased from Virginia had been so well managed by certain experienced breeders of stock, that it had greatly increased, not alone supplying them with eggs, but allowed them plenty to kill and eat. The people were not long satisfied with the rude buildings which they had first built. They had met with sufficient prosperity to be able to send to England for bricks and other building material, and the houses which they erected were firm, and to some degree elegant. A manor was built for Governor Calvert, and within two or three years an excellent State House, in the form of a cross, was built upon the bluff. In front of it stood the famous mulberry tree, under which the first treaty had been made with the Indians, and upon this were nailed all the notices and State papers which the Governor issued. Here the little armed force gathered for drill, and here the town punishments were made. A little further back stood the church, and about it the church-yard.

Certain fashions were set in the building of those days which are noticeable now in the city of Baltimore. The ground floor and basements were made of red brick, or paved with square red tiles. Some of the houses were of red brick, ornamented here and there with black.

There were high, red brick walls, and stout chimneys built upon the outside, with the fire-places paved in red tile. Plantations began to be cultivated around the town, tobacco being the chief staple raised for exportation.

In 1635, Lord Baltimore began to make grants of lands to settlers. To those who had come upon the first voyage extensive grants were made, so that the pioneers became, to an extent, lords of the property. Mills were built, both at St. Mary's and on the plantations, so that it became possible for them to make their own flour, and to start various other home industries. Under these fortunate conditions people crowded to the colony, and, in 1635, it was found necessary to make a new code of laws. The simple rules, which were at first sufficient to control the community, were no longer adapted to their growing and complex civilization. But Lord Baltimore did not approve of the laws, and refused assent to them. Two years later he made out a code, but the assembly of the people would not accept his laws any more than he accepted their's. It was not because they objected to the laws that he made, but because they wished to govern themselves, and at last they had their way, though it was not for several years.

The Indians who lived about St. Mary's were always friendly to the settlement, but the Susquehanna Indians were the enemies of the Yaocomicos, and, therefore, of all whom the tribe were friendly to. In 1642 the Susquehannas opened quite a warfare with the Marylanders, which lasted for two years, when treaties were made.

The kindness which the Catholics of Maryland had shown to all people of other religions did not meet with a proper return. The Catholics were the friends of the King in England, but the Protestants preferred the Parliament, which, at this time, was having much difficulty in getting along with the King. So when the revolution came in England against the King, the people of Maryland were divided on this subject, and it put the Catholics against the Protestants in a way which made much trouble in the colony. Leonard Calvert became so troubled about the quarrels of the people he was trying to govern, that he sailed for England, to have a talk with his brother, Lord Baltimore, leaving Giles Brent to look after the colony.

This was a splendid chance for Clayborne to have revenge upon the Marylanders. He went to St. Mary's and stirred up the Protestants, or the Parliament faction, against the government of Baltimore, and his plans were aided in an unexpected way. Brent ordered that a vessel belonging to the Parliament party should be seized when it got to St.

Mary's, and its commander arrested on a charge of treason against the King. This made the Protestants very angry, and they allowed Clayborne to come in and take possession of his old island of Kent; so when Calvert returned he found everything in a very bad state, and he and his council and their friends were driven from the colony, and had to go to Virginia for safety. Captain Edward Hill, a Virginian, was made Governor, but everything was done about as Clayborne said. Though he was such a determined man, he did not understand how to govern, and while he remained, there was constant quarreling and dissatisfaction in the colony.

The Jesuit priests had to leave St. Mary's. They built a mission on the Bay of St. Inigo, and here Governor Calvert erected a fort, with a mill inside and a few buildings about, besides a chapel. Calvert collected his friends on the Virginia border, and in April surprised St. Mary's, and took it with but little trouble. The people seemed to have been glad to get back a man who would govern them with firmness and order. Captain Edward Hill was sent back to Virginia, and Clayborne escaped to Jamestown. Governor Calvert died in 1647, leaving Thomas Green to be his successor, and Mistress Margaret Brent the administratrix of his enormous possessions. She was a remarkable woman, with great strength of will, and a good understanding of business and government affairs.

Maryland continued to be free to people of all religions, and the gentle Catholic missionaries continued their work. In many ways this was the most successful colony in its beginning upon the Atlantic coast. Its leaders were men of good blood and training, with a sincere reverence for God, and some experience in government. Their laws were suited to the time and the people, and Lord Baltimore's name is still held in high regard in the city which is called after him.

FOR FURTHER READING.

BIOGRAPHY—Spark's "Calvert."

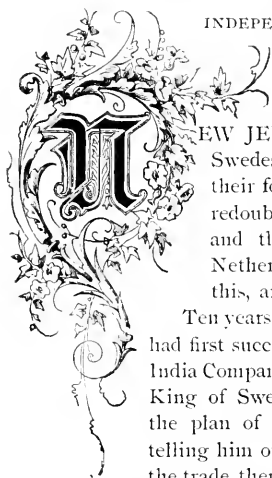
Mill's "Founders of Maryland."

FICTION—Mathilda Douglas' "Black Beard."

CHAPTER XVI.

A Brief Authority.

NEW JERSEY—THE SETTLEMENT UNDER PETER MINUET—OPPOSITION
OF THE DUTCH—THE TRIUMPHS OF THE DUTCH UNDER
PETER STUYVESANT—END OF SWEDISH
INDEPENDENCE IN AMERICA.



EW JERSEY was the only State settled by the Swedes. In 1614, when the first Dutch settled their fort on Manhattan Island, they built also a redoubt on what is now the New Jersey shore, and the whole of this region they called New Netherlands. But little attention was paid to this, and the ground was practically unoccupied.

Ten years later, William Usselinex, of Antwerp, who had first succeeded in establishing the great Dutch West India Company, visited Sweden. Gustavus Adolphus was King of Sweden then, and before him, Usselinex laid the plan of founding a Swedish colony in America, telling him of the great profits which might arise from the trade there. The King was much impressed with

the business-like eloquence of the Dutchman, and perhaps still more impressed with the idea that another Christian church might be built upon savage shores. He felt that Sweden had been behind the other nations, and it would greatly add to his power and reputation if he were to further such a scheme. The Diet of Sweden favored the King's project, and, therefore, when Gustavus Adolphus was killed, in 1632, on the battle-field, the plans which he had laid were carried out. It was several years, however, before the company was formed, calling itself the Sweden West India Company. Peter Minuet, who had been discharged from his post as Governor, asked to have charge of its first expedition. It was given him, on account of the experience he had had, and in the autumn of 1637, he set sail from Gottenburg, with two

vessels and fifty emigrants. These vessels entered Delaware Bay and sailed up the river, which they named after their Queen, Christina. Minnet bought of the Indians all the land on the west side of South river, from Cape Henlopen to near where Trenton now stands. As usual in such purchases, the land was to run westward indefinitely. They built a fort near the present site of Wilmington.

The Dutch promptly resented this intrusion upon their territory, and sent down a sounding proclamation, which warned Minnet, in the most serious terms, that he was trespassing upon their rights; but the Swedes were charmed with the country so in contrast to their bleak native land, and were in no mind to leave it. Minnet had said, in answer to the first question asked him by the Dutch, that he came for wood and water, but as the Swedes began gardening and building, he was forced to confess the truth. To the Dutch proclamation, however, he paid no heed, but went on working upon his fort and trading house and establishing commerce with the Indians. Twenty-four men were placed in possession, and vessels were sent home well laden, to return with more emigrants. Though the Dutch were very indignant, they hesitated to venture against the determined and well-armed Swedes, who took a very flourishing trade away from the Dutch West India Company.

The first summer and winter passed pleasantly with them, but in the second winter their supplies became low, and they seriously thought, at one time, of going to the Dutch at Manhattan, or of finding a way for returning to their native home. In the spring, however, matters became better. Some trade was established in New Netherlands, and further additions to the colony came from Sweden, bringing with them abundant supplies. They were an exceedingly industrious and saving people. Their selection for a settlement had been most happy; they lived at peace with each other and with the Indians, and in a short time their little towns began to wear a look of vigorous prosperity, especially in the autumn, when more colonists came, with tools and mechanics to use them. Three ships, at least, came in the autumn, and it is said that many were anxious to come, but had been unable to do so for want of ship-room. The following summer (1641) Minnet died in the fort which he had built. The Swedes were much attached to him, and mourned him deeply. A Swede—Holleandare—became Governor in his place.

The English pursued toward them the policy which has made them the greatest nation in the world. They were bent on conquest, and constantly interfered with their quiet neighbors. At length a number

of New England colonists, under the charge of Robert Cogswell, left Connecticut and came to the South river, having heard that that region was especially beautiful. William the Testy, Governor of the Dutch, protested in his usual high-flown language, but the English quietly worked on, and before the end of the summer, had planted corn and built trading posts on Salem creek and on the Schuylkill. New Haven took these towns under her especial protection, and William the Testy knew that it would be useless to come in conflict with the New England confederation of colonies. The Swedes, as well as the Dutch, were vexed at this intrusion of the English, and in 1642, when the Dutch sent a commissary to force the intruders away, the people at Fort Christina gave them all the help they could. The English were obliged to yield. They were taken prisoners to Manhattan, and then sent to their own homes. New Haven thought it best not to resent this insult to her dignity.

About this time a fort was built twelve miles below where Philadelphia now stands, and called the New Gottenburg. The building of this was superintended by John Printz, a cavalry lieutenant in the Swedish service, who had been sent out to take the place of Holleandare as Governor. Near the fort, Printz built a manor house, magnificent for that time, which he called Printz Hall. The home government appropriated a large sum of money for the support of the colony, and promised to keep it supplied with soldiers. Printz was a very overbearing and proud man, who, from first to last, managed the affairs of the colony with decision and dignity. Neither English nor Dutch were allowed longer to take liberties with the Swedes. His fort of New Gottenburg compelled every vessel to show her colors as she passed, and no trade was allowed which did not pay tribute. The Dutch continued to send out fierce letters, but to these, a man like Printz was not likely to pay any attention. The English tried to trade on the rivers which the Swedes now claimed, but they were promptly arrested by order of the Governor, and the English learned that for once they were not to be allowed to have their own way.

In 1645, the rather amiable commissary at the Dutch fort, Nassau, was removed by William the Testy, of New Amsterdam. The officer who took his place was more aggressive in his nature, and seized the first opportunity to put the authority of the Swedes to test. Disputes began between the governors of the colonies, and much diplomacy, and, to tell the truth, no little deceit was used. When Hudde, the new Governor of the Dutch fort, tried to start a settlement on some land

which he had bought near the present site of Philadelphia, Printz sent some men to stop it, and the Dutch arms were torn down and used in a manner which greatly outraged the feelings of the patriotic colonists. Letters of great stateliness and hostility were exchanged, but the choleric Governor Printz refused to listen to the sensible advice of Hudde. When the sergeant, by whom Hudde had sent his letter, reached Printz Hall, and had got through the army of servants around it to where the Governor stood upon the steps, the letter was snatched from him and thrown carelessly to a man in waiting. After standing about unnoticed for some time, the Dutch soldier begged for a reply. This request was met in a way peculiar to the plethoric Printz, who weighed about four hundred pounds, and was a man of extraordinary muscle. He picked up the unfortunate sergeant and threw him violently out of doors, taking a gun for the purpose of shooting him. After this there could be nothing but quarrels between the two nations. The Dutch trade was rapidly decreasing, for the Swedes kept both them and the English off the valuable lands which they occupied, and from which the Dutch had formerly made much money. Large companies of settlers continued to come to New Sweden, and these later settlers were of a much better class than those which had come at first. When New Netherland was at its most abject state, under the mismanagement of William the Testy, New Sweden wore an air of considerable prosperity. From the mouth of the Schuylkill to the Capes of Henlopen and May, Governor Printz held absolute control. It was one of the richest territories on the Atlantic coast, with sweeping hills and magnificent forests of trees. Not only did they claim the lovely waters of the Delaware, but many streams and winding creeks as well. Before them lay the bay, one hundred miles in length.

When Peter Stuyvesant was appointed Governor of New Netherlands, the policy was somewhat changed. For several years Stuyvesant could do little but support Hudde in the position which he had taken, and to sustain, in a negative way, the title of the Dutch, but at length he found time to visit the Swedish territory, and, being an old soldier, saw immediately the cause of the Dutch failures. Fort Nassau, instead of being at the mouth of the Delaware, was far up the stream, and quite useless to protect against invasion. The Swedes had taken possession of the mouth of the Schuylkill. At the confluence of these two rivers, trade even then found its center. Printz had seen that this must be the case, and had built his forts there and barred the approach to that point by others further down the Delaware. Modern commerce has improved

the selection of Printz, by concentrating the shipping trade of Philadelphia at exactly this point. Stuyvesant saw that Fort Nassau was useless, and ordered its destruction. He bought from the Indians all the land from Christina to Bombay Hook. Within this territory, about four miles below the mouth of the Christina, is the bold promontory, which commands a view of the Delaware both up and down. On this point, where the town of Newcastle now stands, they built Fort Casimir. Governor Printz was indignant, and said that this was an invasion on the soil of the Swedes, but Stuyvesant seems to have quieted him in some way, and the Swedes no longer commanded the Delaware. Their fort at the mouth of the Salem creek was abandoned as useless, but Printz was too proud to tell the real reason for its evacuation, and gave it out that the mosquitoes had been too bad for them to remain there longer.

The Swedes and the Dutch were united about this time in a common fear. They dreaded the English much more than they did each other, and made a compact of mutual protection. It is certainly true that the English continued to cast envious eyes at the beautiful stretch of country with its genial climate and broad, noble hills. Besides, Englishmen do not like to be beaten, and will hardly admit defeat. They had not forgiven the Swedes and Dutch for uniting to drive them from this place a few years before, and, shortly after the compact between the two governors, sent a company of fifty persons from New Haven to make another attempt at an English settlement on the Delaware. They stopped at New Amsterdam to visit Governor Stuyvesant, and to tell him their purpose, but the independent Governor arrested them promptly, and only let them go when they promised to return to New Haven.

Printz, however, had nothing of the diplomat in his composition, and could not abide the Dutch so near him, so he sent to Sweden for aid, but his impatience would not let him wait until he received an answer, and he sailed for Sweden himself, passing on his way John Rysingh, with a force of about three hundred men, who had been sent out to his relief. The first act of this force was to demand the capture of Fort Casimir. The fort yielded without resistance, for they had no powder. The bark of the Dutch was apt to be much worse than their bite. Thus the Swedes were again in absolute possession of the South river, and all the Dutch in and about the fort were made to take the oath of allegiance to Sweden, or else forced to leave that part of the country. Fort Casimir was called Fort Trinity, because it was taken

on Trinity Sunday. It can be imagined that the excitement in New Amsterdam was great, and that the indignation meetings among the hot-headed Dutchmen were many. Governor Stuyvesant felt, with some justice, that he had been unfairly treated, and seized every opportunity for retaliation. In this, the directors in Holland sustained him, but the winter passed and spring came before he was able to make preparations for humbling the Swedes. At length a fleet of seven vessels, manned by a force of from six hundred to seven hundred men, sailed toward the South river. This was not until the 10th of September. All the Swedes in the country did not number more than half the invading force. Resistance was absurd. The Swedes surrendered, and a part of them were made to take the oath of allegiance to the high and mighty lords and patroons of this New Netherland province. Next, Fort Christina was taken, and after a siege of twelve days, a third fort surrendered. The invaders destroyed the little village of Christinaham, burning the houses and killing the cattle and seizing all the plunder they could. At length Rysing surrendered, conditionally. It was declared that the property belonging to the Swedes was to be unmolested, and that all who wished could have free passage to Europe. So ended Sweden's rule in America. Some Swedes still lived along the banks of the Delaware and cultivated their farms, doing much to develop early the best resources of that country.

Stuyvesant appointed Johans Paul Jaquet as Governor over the southern territory of the West India Company. The Swedish colony was now called New Amstel; and the burgomasters of Amsterdam became much interested in their new possessions, making great offers to those who would move thither. The following years, however, were full of discontent. Malaria, as in all new agricultural settlements, weakened and dispirited the colonists, and though the farms promised well, the harvests were not plentiful, for insects of various sorts nearly destroyed the crops. Death became very frequent, especially among the children, and they came so near famine that they were obliged to use their seed corn for food. The Amsterdam Company no longer sent them supplies, as it had promised to do, and began to tax them. The colonists lost hope. Many moved to Virginia. Some returned to their own countries, and those who had contracted with the company to remain for a given length of time, escaped through the forest to the southern settlements.

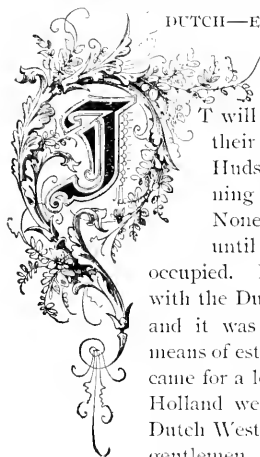
FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Carpenter's "History of New Jersey,"
Smith's "History of the Colony of New Jersey."

CHAPTER XVII.

Old Wine in New Bottles.

THE "PATROONS" OF NEW NETHERLAND—THE SETTLEMENT AT
MANHATTAN—THE MANNERS AND CUSTOMS OF THE
DUTCH—ESTABLISHMENT OF POPULAR
LAND LAWS.



It will be remembered that we left the Dutch in their settlements upon Long Island and the Hudson, just at the time when they were beginning to feel the need of a firmer government. None of the settlements had been prosperous until they were given an interest in the land they occupied. It was certain that this scheme must be used with the Dutch, for New Amsterdam settled but slowly, and it was seen that trading-posts were not the best means of establishing civilization. Only poor emigrants came for a long time, but after a while rich men from Holland were sent out, and given privileges by the Dutch West India Company. Each of these important gentlemen was allowed to found a colony of fifty persons, and to own a tract of land sixteen miles in length on any shores or streams not yet occupied. Westward there was no limit placed on his possessions, which were allowed to run into the interior as far as they might—to the Pacific coast, had he but known there was a Pacific coast. His colony was to be established within four years from the time the land was granted him, and he was required, by just provision not usually employed, to pay the Indians for his land. His estate was called a "manor," and it was quite independent of colonial government. He was actually a lord of the soil, and lived in much elegance and with a full sense of importance, such as the men of his time and nation were apt to feel. These "patroons" as they were called, were allowed all privileges, except the manufacture of woolen or cotton goods, which the West India Company wished to keep a monopoly of. The company

supplied the manors with negro slaves, which they imported from Guinea, but after a time this feudal system began to give way. There seemed to be something in the air of the New World which was opposed to the pretensions of nobility. Even the stately patroons came to see, after awhile, that they were regarded more as land-holders than as lords.

It was so easy to see the injustice of giving a man such advantages over his fellows that the people would not patiently endure it. Nothing could more firmly prove that the plan of the government of Europe was, and is, false and wrong, since it fails to give men equal opportunities. It has existed so long in the Old World that it has almost come to seem right. Here, where it could be seen at its beginning, it was recognized as altogether wrong. The company had had a selfish reason for employing the feudal system in the New Netherlands. It believed that if it intrusted the care of immigration to the patroons it would be saved the expense of sustaining the government, and if each patroon protected his own property, with men established under him as serfs, there would be no need of any officers to do so. For, indeed, the people under these Dutch lords were little else than serfs. No "man or woman, son or daughter, man servant or maid servant," could leave a patroon's service during the time he had agreed to remain, except by his written consent. On the other hand, the patroon was under no obligations to his people, but could do as he saw fit. It brought about evils almost as great as those of slavery.

The right which was given to the patroons to settle upon any territory not yet occupied, soon began to affect the great West India Company. They had wished to secure and retain a monopoly of trade, but by the short-sighted means employed they defeated this. A number of the Amsterdam directors availed themselves of this opportunity, and settled upon immense tracts of land, to which they gave high-sounding names. When it was too late the company perceived what it had done. The enterprising directors hastened to settle colonies upon their land, and so settlements were spread down to the South river, along the shores of what we now call Delaware Bay, and to the present town of Louiston, Delaware. One director went over to Cape May and bought a large tract of land there. One of the largest settlements was on Bear's Island, about twelve miles below Albany, to Smack's Island, and extended two days' journey inland. Afterward this estate was carried to the confluence of the Mohawk, and thus it was again extended. Another director acquired a vast quantity of land opposite Manhattan

Island, and gave it the name of Hoboken—Hacking Island. This man afterward got the whole of Staten Island, and then the region where Jersey City now stands. Upon this estate the owner bestowed the name of Pavonia.

The patroons were not satisfied to confine themselves to agriculture. They began a most profitable trading in peltries, so that the exports of Holland, in 1626, were valued at six thousand guilders. This, of course, was an infringement upon the rights of the Dutch Company, which drew up an order forbidding any one to deal in peltries, maize or wampum. The constant disputes which arose out of this greatly delayed the progress of New Netherland.

The colony founded in Delaware, where Louiston now stands, was called Swaanendael, or the Valley of Swans, and here a curious thing happened. A pillar had been set up bearing the arms of Holland, in token of possession. This an Indian chief saw, and thinking it would make delightful pipes, took it down and proceeded to make it up into them. But to this piece of symbolical tin the Dutch attached a great deal of importance, and the officer left in charge of the colony fretted and fumed, with many high-sounding Dutch words, until the Indians, thinking that their chief had committed a terrible crime, put him to death in hopes of regaining the friendship of the Dutch. The officer explained then that his wild gestures and oaths had simply meant that he wished to have the chief reprov'd. The Indians were naturally out of patience to find that they had made such a sacrifice to so little a purpose, and soon after, a party scattered themselves through the town in a friendly manner, and then fell upon and murdered every person at the post, leaving nothing but the ruins of the burned houses. Peter Minuet, returning from Europe at this time, thought best to make a treaty of peace with these Indians, and with the representatives of all other tribes which he met. He went to Jamestown instead of visiting the Dutch colony, which was at that time without a governor.

A short time after this Wouter Van Twiller was sent over from Holland as Governor. He had married a niece of Van Rensselaer, the chief of the patroons, and came in much state and great finery. He had just got settled in his manor at New Amsterdam when an English vessel came into the harbor. The officers of the vessel dined with Van Twiller and his ceremonious Dutch friends, and made a great show of courtesy, but they coolly announced their intention of going up the river to trade with the Indians. Of course, all the Dutchmen fell into a rage. They swore that the English should not trespass upon their

grounds, and in a warlike fever caused the flag of Orange to be raised over the fort and saluted with three guns, while the English quietly sailed on their way up the stream. Van Twiller saw that more active measures would have to be taken, so he got all the people in the fort before his door and ordered a barrel of wine to be brought out.

Upon this he mounted and set the example to his men of drinking glass after glass in defiance of the Englishmen. In the meantime the English had sailed out of sight. Several days after a force of soldiers did go after the scornful Englishmen and compelled them to return, but the Governor's reputation was gone.

Though the settlement at Manhattan was twenty years old, it was still little more than a trading post. The company seemed to sap its strength. The interest was not so much in the soil as the money that could be got out of the country. Some new houses had been built which were firm and substantial, and three great wind-mills had been erected. About one hundred soldiers were well quartered. A good church had been built and shops established by various tradesmen. But it was lacking in that appearance of permanence and domesticity which characterized the New England colonies.

Nothing could have been more crooked than the streets. The houses were of wood, with gable ends built of small black and yellow bricks, brought over from Holland. The doors and windows were many, and the date of the building of the house was put in iron letters in the gable; frequently the name of the builder was added. The Hollanders were noted for their cleanliness. Indeed, the people of Holland were scrupulously clean, at a time when the most cultivated people of England were walking on dirty rushes and had not yet learned to clean out their courts. The Dutch in the New Netherlands spun linen as they had done in the old country, and heaped up their closets with it. Their silver and brass-ware was kept perfectly polished. The floors were covered with white sand, on which figures were traced with a broom. Their stately furniture had claw-feet of metal. The time was told by hour-glasses and sun-dials, and neither of the time-pieces were allowed to keep the pompous Dutchmen in a rush. They ate plenty and drank plenty, knew how to tell a good story and how to laugh at it, and were forever having betrothal feasts, wedding banquets and gala days. Christmas, as we celebrate it, is a custom introduced by the Dutch. They taught us how to make and exchange colored eggs at Easter, and but for them, we should never have had the practice of New Year's calling. They loved to smoke and to drink, and their

hospitality was very great. The reputation for this their descendants have never lost. Then, as now, the Dutch housekeepers were excellent cooks, and were especially noted for the delicious cakes and cookies which they made, and which everyone who went to their houses had to share with them.

Though religion was not, as in Plymouth, the object of their lives, they went to church steadily and held their "dominies" in high esteem. There was a great deal of comfort, but little money, and wampum or beaver skins were frequently used in the place of money. The women dressed as they had done in Holland, with short, bright-colored, quilted petticoats, and knitted stockings of bright green, purple, or red. About their heads were white muslin caps, beneath which their hair was plastered down with pomatum. The portly Dutchman—and they were all portly—wore coats of linsey-woolsey, with wide skirts and large buttons of brass or silver. They sported several pairs of knee breeches, one over the other, with long, knitted stockings and immense buckles at their knees and on their shoes. One of their chief industries was ship building. They were very proud of their vessels, and gave them remarkable names, such as "*The Angel Gabriel*" and "*King Solomon*."

Van Twiller became so ridiculous in his management of the New Netherlands that he was removed, and William Kieft, who afterward acquired the name of "William the Testy," was sent out. He found things in a very bad state. There had been altogether too much drinking, too much smoking of pipes and telling of stories. The walls of the fort were down, the houses in need of repairs, the work shops in a useless condition. William the Testy began to straighten out things at once, not as may be imagined in the most amiable way. The company had bought back Pavonia and the Valley of the Swans, and thus checked some of the abuses of the patroons' rule. Affairs reached a crisis, for the people were becoming impatient at having first one monopoly and then another over them, and, therefore, the council of nineteen, at Old Amsterdam, decided that each man should have as much land as he could properly cultivate, and the Dutchmen were given free passage to New Netherland. Affairs began to improve immediately, not only along Staten Island, but away up to Albany.

But with the English there had been many difficulties, and they were steadily encroaching upon the land claimed by the Dutch.

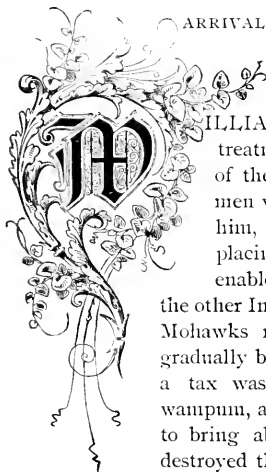
FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Davis' "History of New Amsterdam"
FICTION—P. H. Myres' "The First of the Knickerbockers."
P. H. Myres' "The Young Patroon."

CHAPTER XVIII.

Knickerbocker Days.

THE GOVERNMENT OF WILLIAM THE TESTY—TROUBLE WITH THE
INDIANS—THE NIGHT ATTACK ON PAVONIA—REVENGE
OF THE INDIANS—DISMISSAL OF KIEFT AND
ARRIVAL OF PETER STUYVESANT.



WILLIAM THE TESTY was no wiser in his treatment of the Indians than in his government of the Dutch. The frauds of which the traders were constantly guilty were not checked by him, and the serious mistake was made of placing guns in their hands. The Mohawks were enabled to arm four hundred men. This made the other Indian tribes very envious, and even while the Mohawks remained friendly, the other tribes were gradually becoming hostile. When at last, in 1640, a tax was laid upon the Indians, exacting corn, wampum, and furs from them, the injustice was enough to bring about an open war. The Raritan Indians destroyed the settlement on Staten Island, in revenge for which William the Testy offered a bounty for the head of every Raritan which should be brought to him. Later in the year—this was in 1641—a young Indian chief murdered a farmer in retaliation for the killing of his uncle. Another private murder was committed by an Indian, and these two crimes aroused the enmity of all of the Dutch settlements. At the same time, the people considered it wisest and best to use policy. Governor Kieft, however, had nothing politic in his nature. He wished to send out an armed force against the Indians, and would have done so immediately had the people not protested. The tribes at the lower part of the river were not a prey to the enmity of their white neighbors alone, but were constantly harassed by the powerful Mohawks. Many of them had to flee from the coast into

those dark and interminable forests which stretch westward. Some of these unhappy Indians at last had to take refuge with the whites, so merciless were their Indian foes, and by some of the whites they were treated with great kindness. But certain of the twelve selectmen of New Amsterdam insisted upon attacking the Indians at Pavonia, across the river; and, though the wiser men of the community tried to dissuade them from this action, an armed force was sent to fight them in the dead of night. Perhaps one thousand Indians in the encampment were sleeping quietly in their tents. So sudden was the onslaught that the unfortunate victims believed that it was the Indians from Fort Orange who had fallen upon them, and some of them actually fled to the Dutch settlement for protection, only to learn who their true enemies were.

One hundred and twenty Indians were murdered that night, with horrible and indescribable tortures. The limbs and arms were hacked from the little children. They were bound to boards, then cut to pieces. Some of them were thrown into the river to make their parents go after them, where they were kept at bay, by the muskets of the Dutch, until they were drowned. Those who escaped, and came out in the morning to beg for food, were killed in cold blood. Some were drowned, and some burned to death. The troops, marching back to the fort in the morning, were received with many praises.

Then, over all the colonies, broke a wave of war and outrage. Everywhere in New Netherland, farmers were killed and wives and children carried away into a terrible imprisonment. Now and then a sort of a half peace was made, only to be broken—first on one side, and then on the other. Late in the summer the tribes on the Hudson Highlands began an open warfare, and made it impossible for trading boats to come up the river. Ann Hutchinson, the witty woman preacher, was killed near New Rochelle. Savages crept into the very villages and murdered men in the twilight. The people had no longer any patience with Kieft. They felt that his terrible cruelty had been responsible for all this suffering. He appointed a council to help him decide upon this difficult matter; and, under this council, a large force of soldiers were armed and thoroughly drilled, with John Underhill at their head. John Underhill was a Massachusetts captain. A petition was sent to the states general of Holland for help—a petition eloquent with fear and suffering. Through the winter which followed, they lived in a terrible state of anxiety, crowded together at the southern end of the island, and being afraid to venture beyond their

own doors. Occasionally, the Dutch would sally out and succeed in making a small skirmish, which only added to the Indians' hatred.

There was a little settlement called Hempstead, on Long Island, where a number of English families were settled. These had been exceedingly annoyed by the Indians near them, and prayed that they might be protected by the Dutch. Consequently, one hundred and twenty soldiers made an attack on two Indian villages, which they sacked, killing more than one hundred braves, and carrying some to Manhattan, where they were tortured.

Later, the little army marched through the snow-covered forests upon the principal village of the Long Island Indians. This they fired, and furnished light to do a most murderous deed. Only sixty-eight of seven hundred Indians escaped. The Dutch had fifteen men wounded. After this, the proud spirit of the Indians was broken, and, when a fresh force of one hundred and thirty soldiers was sent to New Netherland, the Indians sulkily retreated to their forests.

These soldiers were a terrible burden to the poverty-stricken settlement, and Kieft made the great mistake of taxing beer for their support. This was the one thing under the sun which the Dutchmen would not have taxed, and they begged for Kieft's dismissal. They had to wait a whole year before their prayer was answered. In the meantime, the Indians lurked under the very palisades which they had built for their protection, and which stood on a line with the present Wall street, which, of course, took its name from that ancient fortification. The following spring the Indians signed a treaty of peace with the Dutch, and gathering upon the spot still known as the Battery, smoked the pipe of peace with them. In the wars of the last few years sixteen hundred of the Indians had been killed, and nearly all of the Dutch settlements had been destroyed. In all the province there were no more than three hundred men capable of bearing arms, and the settlers prayed for a new Governor, who should bring to them peace and quietness.

In the Connecticut valley, the English had steadily crowded upward, until Dutch control was gone. Fort Nassau, however, was still retained by the Dutch, and established as an important Indian trading post.

On May 27, 1647, Peter Stuyvesant, the new Governor of the New Netherlands, arrived. He was an old soldier of bravery and experience, and lost a leg in his country's service. He wore, in the place of that member, a wooden leg bound with silver. The solemn burghers met him with uncovered heads, and he allowed them, it is said, to stand in



James Madison

the sun for several hours in this way, and seated himself with great ceremony while they remained standing. These king-like airs were not well received, but, in a short time, the honest vigor of the man began to be felt in the colony, and his very tyranny was in happy contrast to the former governor's weakness. The men who had brought a complaint against Kieft were not sustained by Stuyvesant. He said it was treason to petition against magistrates, very wisely thinking that it would not do to allow such an example to pass unproved, for he knew that he himself might soon meet with popular disfavor. The men who had complained of Kieft's abuses were tried and condemned to suffer severe punishments.

The West India Company was no longer much interested in the colony, and left the severe and angry-natured Stuyvesant to do as he pleased. As for Kieft, he started to sail for Holland, but his ship was pounded to pieces on the Welsh rocks, and, at the last, he was seized with repentance for the murders which he had committed and the cruelty with which he had treated his friends. The two men who had been persecuted, because of their complaints against him to the Governor at Holland, were on the ship with him, and he called them to him, saying: "Friends, I have been unjust toward you; can you forgive me?"

Governor Stuyvesant began to lay heavy taxes upon the people, and, though in many ways they lived safely and well under him, with a sense of security in his firmness and courage, they nevertheless felt that he was an unjust Governor. He was assisted in his affairs by a board of nine men. These men were only allowed to advise the Governor. They could make no laws, and give no orders without his approval. One of the first things which Governor Stuyvesant tried to do, was to come to a pleasant understanding with the English; but though the English wrote polite letters, they were not inclined to remove their boundaries farther from the Dutch, and they even claimed that they held the first title to Long Island. Finally, a Dutch captain seized an English ship, and, against this high-handed act, Governor Eaton, of New Haven, protested vigorously. Henceforth, he and Governor Stuyvesant wrote hot and furious letters to each other, and the two Governors quarreled about things which school-boys might have been ashamed to get angry over. He got in disfavor with his own colonists at the same time, by putting a check upon their tradings with the Indians, for, in spite of his forbiddance, they sold the Indians arms and ammunition. It was through this cause that he got into his fierce

quarrel with the young patroon, Van Rensselaer, for the old patroon of that name was now dead. He could not well control a lord owning such vast extent of territory, and used to exercising such power, without getting into trouble. When the young patroon defied Stuyvesant's authority, the Governor sent a squad of soldiers to enforce it. These he ordered to take stone and timber from the patroon's land for the purpose of repairing the fortifications at Fort Orange, but the people of the village around about, who were loyal to the young lord, would not permit such intrusion, even from their great Governor, and, for once, Peter the Headstrong failed to have his way. So, with many jealousies and small envies, the next few years of the New Netherland colonies went on. Any one wishing to study the history of New York can find plenty, both amusing and instructive, in the pages of the old State chronicles, but, for one who wishes to take a broad and hasty view of national history, it is hardly worth while to linger over the foolish quarrels and pretensions of these Dutch burghers.

FOR FURTHER READING:

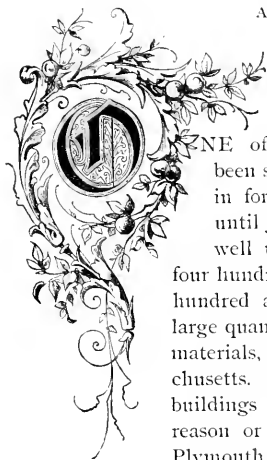
FICTION—Cooper's "Water-Witch."

J. H. Paulding's "The Dutchman's Fireside,"
"Woolfert's Roost" and "Rip Van Winkle," from
Washington Irving's "Sketch Book."

CHAPTER XIX.

The Old Bay Settlement.

THE MASSACHUSETTS BAY COMPANY—THE TRIALS OF THE FIRST YEAR—
ARRIVAL OF ROGER WILLIAMS—JOHN ELIOT—PERSECU-
TION OF WILLIAMS—HIS SETTLEMENT
AT PROVIDENCE.



ONE of the most important colonies has not yet been spoken of, for, though it had much influence in forming the United States, it was not made until June, 1629, when the other settlements were well under way. Six vessels, with their crews, four hundred and six men, women and children, one hundred and forty head of cattle, forty goats, and a large quantity of provisions, tools, arms and building materials, left England, and arrived at Salem, Massachusetts. It will be remembered that a few rude buildings had been put here by people who, for one reason or another, saw fit to leave the colony at Plymouth. Like the Plymouth colony, this had a deep and dignified purpose, and for this reason it and the Plymouth colony are the best remembered and the most talked of to this day. These English wanderers did not come to make money. They came to worship God as they saw fit. They were Puritans. Not like the Puritans of Plymouth, pilgrims who had journeyed from one place to another, but people who had protested against the practices of the Established Church of England and who had found it necessary to seek the new land if they wished to live the life of their liking. They had come out under the royal patent of the Massachusetts Bay Company, which had been formed at Dorchester. John Endicott was made Governor. He was a stern man, who, having made up his mind that a certain thing was best to do, never yielded or gave way. He showed no

mercy toward any one who broke his rules. He was very honorable and straightforward, but he wished everyone to be of his way of thinking. This was shown by his treatment of the Reverend Ralph Smith, one of the several ministers who came over in the fleet. It is hard to find in what small particular Mr. Smith differed from his fellows, but he had some shade of belief which did not agree with their's, and he was not suffered to stay in the colony, but was obliged to take his family and go to Nantasket, where he became so poor and underwent such hardships that the Plymouth people took pity on him and invited him to their settlement. Before the colony had been established six weeks, a day of fasting and prayer was held. One of the ministers who had come over to aid as counsel to Endicott was chosen pastor, and another teacher. A delegation was invited from Plymouth to witness the ceremony of establishing the government of the colony. The very life and conversation of men was to be subject to the rules laid down. The book of common prayer, belonging to the Church of England, was discarded, and a covenant was set up according to directions found in the New Testament.

It was hard to get all of the ministers who came over as counsel, to agree. One of them went back to England, as he could not approve of the methods of the Reformed Church. Two of his followers, John and Samuel Brown, men of a good deal of importance, would have nothing to do with the new church, but called about them all who still had sympathy with the Church of England, and held separate meetings, worshiping after the Episcopalian method. Of course, Endicott would have none of this. He summoned the Browns before him. The Browns held, that if men had come to America to escape intolerance, they should not be persecuted because of their religion, but the ministers held that they had come because they wished to escape the sinful corruptions of the church, and the Browns were sent back to England. Thus the Massachusetts Bay colony showed at the first, why it was started, and how it intended to govern. It did not wish to be governed by the council in London, nor looked after by a corrupt church, and a still more corrupt court. They therefore begged for a transfer of government, and in the course of a few weeks they were allowed to become an independent colony. This showed great courage and force of character, for the protection of the King was thought by all but these men to be a great thing.

Endicott and his friends had the pluck to take matters upon their own shoulders. It was necessary now to make new appointments, and

John Winthrop was elected Governor, with six men as council. John Winthrop was a lawyer of good birth, with quite a fortune for that day. He had a gentle nature and great tenderness of heart, though he did not lack in firmness. He was in England at the time of his election, but sailed immediately for Salem. He found the colony had suffered from the experiences which met most settlers during their first winter in America. Eighty of them had died, and they had many tales of woe to tell. Within a short time one thousand persons followed Winthrop to Salem. Settlements were made at many places along the coast, and quite a large one at Charlestown. Winthrop thought it best to strengthen his hold on the possessions of the colony by settling all along the coast. Some of them went up the Charles, and the beginnings of Dorchester, Medford, Watertown, Cambridge, Roxbury, Lynn and Charlestown were made. Boston Common was settled on because of the excellent spring of water there, and Ann Pollard, a merry young girl, was the first person, according to tradition, to leap ashore where Boston now stands.

There was a great deal of sickness in all of these settlements—partly from want of proper shelter, partly from the malaria, which always comes with the clearing of ground, and more than all, from the want of a variety of wholesome food. In Salem, some had reached such a bad condition that a day of fasting and prayer was ordered. Their prayers seemed to meet with prompt answer, for Captain William Pierce, who had made so many journeys over the Atlantic, appeared at the right moment with a large supply of provisions. On that ship was a man named Roger Williams. Williams was a young man about thirty years of age. On all subjects he was thoroughly radical. The condition of his mind then was like that of most Americans now. He believed that every man had a right to do a thing in his own way. He had no respect for anything simply because it was established and approved of by the majority. He must have been an attractive young fellow, with a good deal of personal magnetism. Governor Winthrop liked him very well, but he shocked the Governor by his out-spoken ways. He was invited to act as teacher of the Boston church, but upon examination it was found that he did not agree with their religious beliefs. That ended it, of course. He would not even join the church, because the members would not openly express their repentance for ever having communed with the Church of England. He held, too, that the magistrate had no right to punish a breach of the Sabbath, and that civil government and religious government should not be confounded.

His eloquence was attractive, and he was chosen minister of the Boston church, in spite of these heresies. Endicott, down at Salem, heard of this, and gave them no peace until he was driven from the church and had taken refuge at Plymouth. Governor Bradford had no fault to find with him, and he did much active work in the course of the next year.

Little by little the Massachusetts Bay colony grew into a commonwealth. It is true that it had enemies. There was one gay Sir Christopher Gardiner, who laid conspiracies against Winthrop, but he was finally arrested and sent back to England. Morton, of Merrimont, had never forgotten the time when Endicott had grimly marched over and pulled down his May-pole, around which he and his hard-drinking friends were dancing with a company of Indian girls. This was a little colony called Merrimont, of which Morton was the leading spirit. Captain Standish had been obliged to take this man prisoner for his disorderly conduct, and to send him over to England in the custody of John Oldham, who had worked himself into favor with the Puritans again. Sir Ferdinando Gorges also quarreled with the Massachusetts Bay Company about patents, and the Browns were still sulky, but none of these did the colony any great harm. The ministers largely controlled matters, and to be a good citizen, according to the status of the colony, was also to be religious.

One of these reverend gentlemen, John Eliot, of Roxbury, was renowned for his saintliness of character, and the work he did among Indians. For years he studied the Indian dialects, and was finally able to preach to them in their own tongue. He made an entire translation of the Bible into the Indian tongue, one of the most important philological works ever published in the United States. Copies of it are still extant, and sell at fabulous prices to collectors of Americana. He converted a whole tribe of Indians, who were known afterward as the praying Indians, and for whom the rest of the savages had a great contempt. Eliot's work was very difficult. The Indian was strangely lacking in moral sense, and it was necessary to teach him many things, which an European would know by instinct, about matters of right and wrong. Even the colonists seem not to have thought very well of the praying Indians. They preferred to have the native left in his savage state.

Another minister of especial note was John Cotton, a man of such winning and triumphant eloquence that he influenced all who came near him. After a time Roger Williams came back to Salem, and immediately got into trouble. Governor Bradford, his friend, was

bound to admit that Roger had some very strange ways of thinking and acting, and he warned the church at Salem against him. But the young man was so attractive that he overcame prejudices of this sort, and the Salem brethren took him into the church, where he began prophesying. His prophecies were not liked by the Salem people, and they arrested him for a treatise which he had written while in Plymouth, relating to the Indian title to the country, for he did not believe in the expulsion of the Indians. Nothing could be proved to his harm, however, on that charge. But Mr. Williams could not keep quiet. He certainly had very peculiar ideas. He convinced all of the women that it was immodest for them to go out of their houses unless they were veiled. Very naturally this was approved of neither by young men nor old men, and Mr. Cotton, the melting preacher, was called upon to persuade the wives and virgins that it was not necessary for them to hide their fair faces. Mr. Cotton went further, and repeated his sermon in the Boston lecture course, where Endicott fiercely got up and quarreled with him on the subject, and the debate got so hot that the Governor had to put a stop to it. Endicott was a fervid follower of Williams by this time. He went around looking everywhere for signs of anti-Christ, and actually cut St. George's cross out of the flag of England one time when he found it in Salem streets. The English soldiers very naturally refused to march after a flag which had been shorn of its sign of victory, and Endicott's rash act made such a disturbance among the soldiers that he was dismissed from the council, and it was some time before he was readmitted.

Williams and his friends asked the council for a grant of land at Marblehead, but it was not granted them. It was the first time that a church had been refused land to build on, and, of course, it only strengthened Roger Williams' following. Endicott's protest was so wild that he was imprisoned until he was ready to apologize. Williams was accused of unheard-of heresies. He held that the State had no right to meddle with a man's conscience or religious opinions. He was right, but he was also disagreeable. He would not bend to the advice of the court, nor take the warnings of the other ministers, and he was finally banished, though he was allowed to remain in town until spring. There was an attempt to put him on board a ship and send him to England, but he escaped and fled to the woods. There he lived, on the best of terms with the Indians, for whom he had a great respect and affection. His dealings with them were upon a basis of equality. Canonicus, chief of the Narragansetts, gave Williams a large tract of

land, but the generous minister kept little for himself, and he gave away his lands to all that he thought in want. The place where he lived he called Providence, in his gratitude to God for having escaped from his enemies.

Many persons persecuted for their religious beliefs in the different colonies came to live with him. Among these was Ann Hutchinson, a woman with a high sense of humor and of independence, who had mimicked some of the dry old preachers in Boston, and had drawn about her a number of people fond of a more simple and straight forward doctrine. Ann Hutchinson, although she is almost forgotten, was one of the most remarkable women of the early history of this country. The new colony, after much trouble, obtained a charter under the name of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations. Never was there a more radical man than Roger Williams. The laws of his colony were based upon a plan of perfect religious toleration. He held that the most Paganish, Jewish, Turkish or anti-Christian conscience should be protected in his colony. Such a thing was unheard of. It was new to the world. Thus was Rhode Island settled.

FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Arnold's "Rhode Island."

FICTION—Miss Sedgwick's "Hope Leslie."

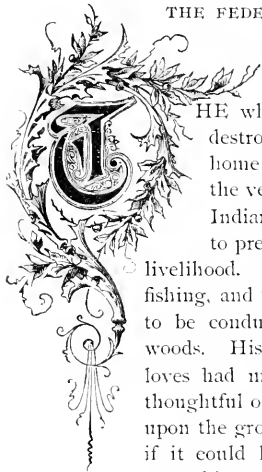
Holland's "Bay Path."

Longfellow's "Rhyme of Sir Christopher."

CHAPTER XX.

The Ravages of Civilization.

THE AMERICAN INDIAN—THE DESTRUCTION OF THE BLOCK ISLAND
INDIANS—THE EXTINCTION OF THE PEQUOT TRIBE—
THE FEDERATION OF THE ENGLISH
COLONIES



THE white man's first business in America was to destroy the forests. Before he could build him a home he laid his axe at the foot of a tree. From the very first, he showed how he differed from the Indian, for the Indian lived in the forest; he wished to preserve it. The game in it was his means of livelihood. The wilder the streams, the better the fishing, and the only sort of warfare which he knew had to be conducted in the solitudes and fastnesses of the woods. His superstition had made it holy to him; his loves had made it dear, and from the first, the most thoughtful of the Indians had looked with great dread upon the growing power of the white man, and wondered if it could be possible for two nations so different in everything to live together in harmony. In the beginning, although the Indian was subtle in his dealings with his enemies, he was true to his friends. He had the naturalness of a child. When he gave his word, he could be trusted. He could endure pain with a bravery only equaled by the old heroes of Sparta. In him was a love of liberty that centuries of injustice has not been able to crush, and in certain directions his mind was trained in a manner unequalled by any except the mystics of Asiatic India. He knew every sign of the forest, and the most timid animal had no match for his cunning. The solitudes were an open book to him, and the best power of his intellect was spent in evolving a philosophy from its pages. He held mental and moral qualities in high esteem, and was willing himself to do but little manual labor, leaving that for the women of his tribe. Few nations in

the world have been found so swift of foot, so keen of sight and hearing, and so clever in detecting signs which no others might see. He was not without imagination or poetry, and for him, mountains, woods, lakes and streams were filled with spirits, good and bad, who watched over his destiny, or thwarted him in his ambitions. His life satisfied him, and so did his religion. It is not strange that the religion which the Englishmen offered him in place of his own was received with coldness.

The lives of the Puritans did not set a good example to the Indians. Crimes of a certain nature were very frequent among them, and it is certain that the Christians did not teach the Indians honesty. Too much theology and too little religion naturally confused the Indian as to what the Christian faith really was, so when they saw themselves being driven inland, mile after mile, they knew that it meant the extinction of their race. They were forced to leave behind them the places which they cherished with a love almost fierce in its nature. The places where their dead lay buried, the monuments to which, day by day, the children added a stone, must all be left behind. The sea was no longer theirs. They saw that in a short time there would be nothing for them to do but march toward the setting sun, leaving the beloved sea behind them.

This brooding hatred and distrust had its results. Captain Oldham had once more been taken into the favor of the Puritans, and when his boat was found drifting at sea, with a band of Indians upon it and his dead body on the deck, the colonists made up their minds to revenge his death; so in August of 1636, nearly one hundred men, in five small vessels, sailed from Boston to Block Island—for it was the Block Island Indians who had murdered Oldham. In command of this expedition was John Endicott, the sternest Puritan of them all. To land at Block Island, even in fair weather, was a difficult thing. To do it in a heavy wind was a most dangerous one. Any seaman would shrink from it, but the Boston force did it in the midst of a shower of arrows from the Indians. The invaders stayed upon the island two days, laying waste the two hundred acres of land under cultivation, burning the maize already harvested, as well as the wigwams and all their furniture. Not one of the Englishmen was harmed, but such of the Indians as were left alive remained upon the island without shelter or food, or canoes in which to escape. Most of them perished wretchedly, but a few must have lived, because much later than this, the Indians of Block Island are referred to.

Endicott took his men to the mainland near the mouth of what is

now the Thames river. Proud of his victory over the Block Islanders, he wished to take revenge upon the Pequot Indians, for their murder of a Puritan named Stone. He asked that the Pequot chief be brought to him, but the chief would not come, and the Englishmen and Indians had some engagements, in which the Indians suffered severely. After burning the Indian villages, Endicott's men coasted on up to the mouth of the Connecticut river, where there was a fort under the command of Captain Lion Gardiner, who was much distressed when Endicott stopped there. He had tried to keep on friendly terms with the Indians, and was much more afraid of starving to death than of being killed. Events show that Gardiner was right. The Indians were greatly irritated and were determined to be revenged for the injustice done to the Block Islanders. They came upon the English at all sorts of unexpected places, and destroyed a large part of the corn which Gardiner had planted. It was hardly safe for the men to venture without the fort, for the Indians lurked about it constantly—never seen, but frequently felt. Cattle were killed or stolen, and the settlements near were greatly harassed. Men went to church carrying their weapons in their hands, and were afraid to labor in their own yards. Both men and women were fallen upon in the fields and murdered or carried into captivity. Had the Indians wished, they might have exterminated the English.

Roger Williams saw the great danger. No man knew better than he the strength and qualities of the people on both sides. His diplomacy alone prevented a concerted attack by all the Indian tribes upon the colonies. Governor Winthrop and the rest were very glad to receive help from the man whom they had driven out in the dead of night and of winter because of his daring to differ from them. The efforts of Williams secured the friendship of the Narragansetts, who had long been enemies of the Pequots. The Massachusetts General Court decided at their May meeting to go to the help of the people in the Connecticut valley. They knew that the red cloud of war might sweep on to Massachusetts. Feeling that it was a common peril, the Bay people called upon Plymouth for help, but Plymouth held back. She had certain quarrels to pick with the Bay government. Both Massachusetts and Plymouth could take time to think. They were not—like the dwellers on the plantation of the Connecticut—being murdered in their beds, by their well-sweeps, and in their doorways.

But in May, a force of ninety men, under the charge of Captain John Mason, sailed from Hartford for Fort Saybrook. Here they were joined by the friendly Uncas, the great Mohegan chief, with a body of

Indians. Mason decided to attack the Pequots in the rear, although this was in disobedience to the orders of the general court. In pursuance of this plan, Mason left the fort and bore away for Narragansett Bay. The Pequots thought he was retreating, and late into the night they sang and boasted that their superior numbers had put the woman-hearted Englishmen to flight. But Mason landed near the entrance of Narragansett Bay, and marched eighteen or twenty miles distant on the Pequot frontier. The Narragansetts had a fort here, and Mason was anxious to make sure of their friendship. On the 25th of May the little army made the tedious march through the woods, with little to eat and less to drink, and encamped at night at the head of the Mystic river. Near that was the principal Pequot fort, crowded with men, women and children.

Very early in the morning, when the east was first streaked with light, Mason awoke his men. Uncas, the Mohegan chief, guided them near to the palisaded village. There seemed to have been no sentinels about the fort, and, but for the barking of a dog, the Indians would not have known that the Englishmen were upon them. A part of Mason's men rushed in on one side, and the rest upon the other. The Indians could do but little, and, mad with terror, tried to rush for the woods, but there was little chance of escape. Mason was not satisfied with the rapid work that guns and swords were doing, but cried, "we must burn them," and snatching a brand from one of the smouldering fires at which the evening meal had been prepared, thrust it among the dead leaves that carpeted the wigwams. Some of the Indians, rather than die at the hands of their hated enemies, ran with a pride past all taming into the flames and perished there. Others, seeing that their wives and children could not escape, threw themselves upon the swords of the Englishmen, who stood in an unbroken circle around the village, and behind whom was a yet sterner and more cruel company of their own countrymen.

It was hardly an hour from the time of the attack when the burned and bleeding bodies of nearly seven hundred Indians lay among their smoking wigwams. Only two of the English were killed.

There was another Indian village belonging to the Pequots not many miles distant, and in this there were still three hundred and fifty warriors. A handful of men had escaped the morning massacre, and flying to this village, told their countrymen the particulars of the morning slaughter. Mad with sorrow and anger, these were soon upon the trail of the English. Mason's men, exhausted with the terrible fight, a third of them wounded, and all suffering from hunger and the intense thirst which

follows such excitement, were in a very weakened condition, but they were able to repulse the Indians, and in the course of the day were met by a reinforcement of forty men from Boston.

The Pequots were now the enemies of all the other tribes of Massachusetts and Connecticut, for the Narragansetts and Mohegans allied themselves with the stronger side. This the Indians always did in warfare. So the Pequots were hunted mercilessly through the forests. They hid themselves in rocks, and caves, and bushes, and wherever they were found they were killed. The worst of it was that they were seldom killed immediately, but were tortured in the most terrible ways. Twenty young Englishmen sometimes pulled the legs and arms of an Indian from their sockets by sheer brutal force. Few of the women and children were killed, but were sent to the West India Islands as slaves. In July, the remnant of this tribe were ensnared in a swamp. Here they fought like wild beasts, with the ferocity of despair, but most of them were killed or taken prisoners, and such as were left met with a fate still more hateful to them. They were permitted to become either Mohegans or Narragansetts, and lost their individuality as a tribe. They were a brave race of warriors, and their pitiable downfall and overthrow cannot but touch the heart of any who admire courage and patriotism. A few who fled to the Mohawks were treacherously killed, and their scalps sent to Governor Winthrop as a sign of Mohawk friendship.

The Pequot war lasted five months. This great tribe, numbering over one thousand warriors, was extinguished by a force of two hundred Englishmen. It is true that the Narragansetts and Mohegans had helped them, but they were never to be relied upon. There is no more striking proof of the superiority of civilized warfare.

After this, for many years, the Indians of Connecticut were subdued. They were sometimes annoying, but seldom dangerous, and while the Dutch were suffering all the terrors of Indian conflict, the New England settlements remained for forty years in a state of comparative peace.

The heavy expense of this war had fallen upon the people of the Connecticut valley, and the colony was badly in debt. Its strongest and best men had been called to military service, leaving the women to look after the farms, and it seemed as if there might be a great lack of food for the coming winter. Active measures had to be taken to prevent this, and every kernel of corn was carefully gathered and preserved. Companies of home soldiers were well drilled at every

settlement, and the young colony had begun to feel its strength and firmness so well now that within eighteen months from this time the new government adopted a constitution. This constitution was very simple and eloquent, and said that the people of Connecticut recognized no allegiance to any other power, not even that of England. It constituted a popular government, in which all the freemen were equal before the law, promising to maintain the liberty of the gospel of our Lord Jesus.

For two hundred years this was the basis of the law of Connecticut. John Haynes and Edward Hopkins served as Governors for many years, sometimes one and sometimes the other holding the position. The life of every man and woman in the community was carefully watched by the magistrate, and no license of speech was permitted. No one was allowed to say what he or she thought about the minister's last sermon, or allowed to laugh at the peculiarities of his or her neighbors. From the very strictness of the laws, now and then some man or woman broke out into a strange frenzy of viciousness or crime, which would be seldom heard of in a less severe community, where light amusements and diversions are allowed. The stern monotony of life seemed to make the heart prey upon itself, and the people broke into vice to supply the necessary excitement. In 1643 a confederation was made, embracing Massachusetts, Plymouth, Connecticut and New Haven. Their distance from each other was so great that it was not practical to have a single government for them all, but they had desired to link the English plantations together, that they might defend themselves against the people of several nations and strange languages who were settling around them. England, occupied with her own troubles, could pay little attention to her colonies, so they looked for no further help from the home country. The main object of this confederation was an offensive and defensive league in case of war. In all other things each colony held the right of self-government. This was the germ of the Federal Union, which has grown great among the nations as the United States of America.

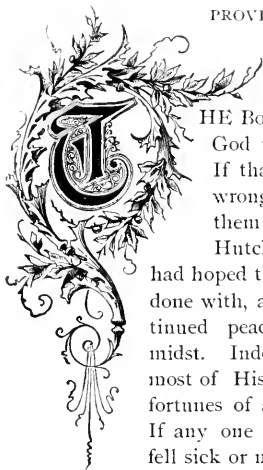
FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Penshallow's "Indian Wars in New England."
BIOGRAPHY—Winthrop's "Life and Letters."
FICTION—L. M. Child's "First Settlers of New England."

CHAPTER XXI.

The Pride of the Righteous.

THE RELIGIOUS LAW OF BOSTON—GORTON AND HIS BELIEFS—THE
SETTLEMENT AT SHEWANET—PERSECUTION OF THE GORTON-
ITES—PERSECUTION OF THE BAPTISTS—THE OBTAINING
OF A ROYAL CHARTER FOR RHODE ISLAND AND THE
PROVIDENCE PLANTATIONS.



THE Boston people had come to America to worship God in what they believed to be the right way. If that was the right way, all other ways must be wrong, and they allowed no one to differ from them in the smallest shade of belief. When Ann Hutchinson was driven from among them, they had hoped that all these "notable errors" of belief were done with, and that God would reward them with continued peace for driving such heresies from their midst. Indeed, they believed that God devoted the most of His time and attention to them, and the misfortunes of all others were counted to their own glory. If any one who had opposed them or criticised them fell sick or met with misfortune, they believed it another sign of the Lord's care. To be a citizen, it was first necessary to be a member of the church, and the court of justice was little more than a religious examining seat. If any one made remarks upon the preached word or showed any contempt of the preacher, he was called a "Wanton Gospeller," and stood for two hours openly upon a block four feet high, on a lecture day, with a paper on his breast with "A Wanton Gospeller" written thereon in capital letters. It was this firm belief in their own righteousness which caused the people of Boston to persecute so many people at different times on account of religious differences.

One of the men who suffered most from this unforgiving spirit was

Samuel Gorton. No one of a later day was able to tell just what this man believed, but it was certain that he believed something different from the people around him. He was one of the early settlers of Portsmouth, Rhode Island, and was given to advertising new theories, and to standing by them in a manner not so wise as it was determined. He visited both Boston and Plymouth, and while at Plymouth got into his first fight with the authorities because he defended a servant of his own family who so far forgot herself as to smile in church, and who was therefore declared to be a heretic. At length he was driven out, and, very naturally, went to Acquidneck, Roger Williams' settlement, where everyone was welcomed. In the year 1641, Gorton bought land at Pawtuxet. This was where Cranston now stands, and was within the bounds of Providence. Of the people of Providence, Governor Winthrop had a very poor opinion. He said that some of them were against the baptizing of infants, and that others denied all magistracy, and claimed that Gorton was their captain.

Roger Williams managed to keep them (the Gortonites) peaceful for a time, but at length arguments waxed so hot between them and their neighbors that blows followed. A man named Arnold, and a dozen others, appealed to Massachusetts for aid against Gorton and his friends, who seemed to have had certain socialistic ideas in regard to land, very offensive to people used to complicated government. Boston, however, refused to send help to the people of Pawtuxet, since they did not live under the government of Massachusetts, as both parties had found Boston so little to their liking that they had run away from it. They were not willing to submit themselves to its government again even to win their point, but at length the quarrels grew so hot that they sent again to Boston for help. This appeal was sent out by four men, of whom Arnold was one. These four men submitted themselves to Boston, with their lands and possessions, and as these were very desirable, Boston consented to give them help. Having got the lands in this cheap way, the Massachusetts magistrates gave the four men leave, if they had a just title to anything which Gorton and his friends possessed, to proceed against them in court. This they did immediately, the case being, of course, decided in favor of Arnold and his friends. By this very simple method, Massachusetts gained possession of that beautiful garden of the Narragansett.

There were about twelve men of the Gorton party, and these immediately deserted their homes and gardens in Pawtuxet, and moved away in search of a new place. They settled about twelve miles south

of Providence, calling their settlement Shewanet. Before going there Samuel Gorton sent a remarkable letter to the Boston magistrates, which set forth all of their religious beliefs. The magistrates seemed to know what it meant, for they found twenty-six blasphemous particulars in it, though no one since has been able to tell what Gorton's theology was. The land at Shewanet was bought of Miantonomo, the young sachem of the Narragansetts, and it was so far from the settlement of any one else that they hoped they might be left in peace, but Arnold was not the man to let a personal matter drop so quietly, and he induced the Indians to say that they had been forced to sign the deed giving title to Gorton's people, and two small sachems, who were hired to tell this lie, were received as subjects of the Massachusetts government. That these two new subjects might be properly protected, the twelve men of Shewanet were asked to appear before the general court at Boston. This, Gorton and his friends refused to do, and the colony sent back a threat which showed the Shewanet people that they were in danger of their lives. A band of soldiers and Indians charged upon the village, and the troops did not disdain to level their muskets upon women and children. Some of the people ran for the woods; others waded out into the river to reach a boat, which some Providence people, in pity for their condition, had brought to the place. Though none of them died at the time, a number died afterward from the exposure and suffering. The men had not supposed that the Boston troops would trouble their wives and children, and had fortified themselves in one of their log houses. They stood the siege for several days, but without firing a shot—for they did not believe in the shedding of blood. Their houses were pillaged, their cattle driven off, and their wives and children, who lurked in the woods near by, were fired at.

At length the Gorton men promised they would yield, and go to Massachusetts to be tried, if they could go as free men, and not as prisoners. This the soldiers promised, but as soon as they got in the house, the arms were taken from the Gorton men and they were marched off as captives. In Boston, they were received as if they were the most dangerous and dreadful men.

The clergymen called the people together in the open streets to thank God for his goodness in giving them the victory, and Governor Winthrop went out and publicly blessed the soldiers. The trial lasted four days, and the elders declared that the offense of these men was deserving of death, but the large body of the delegates would not permit this sentence. The men were imprisoned. The winter they

spent in jail did not, however, keep their doctrines from spreading, and and at length Governor Winthrop thought it best to set them free. Within three days, however, they were told to depart out of the town before noon. They had nothing to do once more but to take to the wilderness, where they lived among the Indians. In time they succeeded in getting from King Charles a document which let them pass safely through any town of New England, and which gave them an order for the grounds at Shewanet, from which they had been evicted by Arnold and his friends. Of course, they had much trouble in carrying this into effect. The Earl of Warwick was the president of the Board of Commissioners who had seen to the rights of the Gorton party, and in gratitude Shewanet was named Warwick. Warwick became a part of Providence plantation under a charter got by Roger Williams, in 1644. This charter Williams carried to Boston and made them recognize its power, but they treated him with no more friendliness there than they did before. He did not need to mind, however, when he was received at home with so much love. When the people heard that he was returning, the river was crowded with canoes, and the people gathered upon the banks to welcome him. This charter gave to the people of the Providence plantations full power and authority to govern and rule themselves, and all others who came within their boundaries. It was the first colonial charter of the sort that had ever been given. When the first general assembly met under it at Portsmouth, they declared that the form of government established in Providence plantations was democratic; that is to say, a government held by the free and voluntary consent of all, or the greater part of the free inhabitants. It granted to every one absolute freedom of conscience.

By this time political parties had begun to be felt in America. Men who had been Whigs and Tories in England, were Whigs and Tories here, and this declaration of democracy greatly offended the royalist party, who thought it an insult to the King. Some of these asked to be united to Massachusetts, but were refused unless they would allow that their land came within the Plymouth patent. This, of course, they would not do. It came about in time that a royal charter was obtained from Charles II, after he was restored to the throne, which united Rhode Island and the Providence plantations. The events which led to this are interesting, and form another chapter in that marvelous book of religious persecutions which go to make up so great a part in colonial history.

The Reverend John Clark was one of the most popular citizens of

Rhode Island, and the pastor of the Baptist Church at Newport. The Baptists were one of the exiled sects who had come within the protection of Roger Williams' strong arm. Holmes and Crandall were also Baptist ministers, and these three went together to Lynn, in Massachusetts, to visit one of their faith who was old, sick and blind, and had desired to see them. While they were visiting this old man they held divine service in his house, and were arrested by constables for daring to preach the despised religion on Massachusetts territory. They were sent to the Boston jail until the court set, and, after ten days' confinement there, were found guilty of being Baptists. They were sentenced either to be whipped or pay a fine, and when they asked what they had been guilty of, Endicott replied that they denied infant baptism, and John Wilson, the pastor of the Boston Church, so lost his temper that he struck Holmes. Friends paid the fine of Clark and Crandall, but Holmes' conscience would not allow him to be released that he might escape a painful punishment, so he was led out of the prison into the presence of the people to be whipped. The coat which he had put on with much neatness, that he might look worthy of the Lord, was taken from him, and he was given thirty strokes with a three-corded whip. When the sheriff had finished, and even the hardest-hearted of the bystanders turned sick at the sight of his bleeding back, he turned smilingly to the magistrates by, and said: "You have struck me as with roses."

The political quarrels of the different towns of the Providence plantations had weakened their government, but the manner in which these Providence preachers had been treated determined them to see to their rights in the future, that they might be able to retaliate with proper force should Massachusetts interfere in this way again. Clark was sent to England to obtain the royal charter, which he did after working and waiting for several years.

FOR FURTHER READING:

BIOGRAPHY—Spark's "Gorton."

FICTION—J. Bauvard's "Priscilla."

Hawthorne's "Scarlet Letter"

CHAPTER XXII.

Through Pain to Peace.

THE QUAKERS—THEIR PERSECUTION—GEORGE FOX AND HIS FRIENDS

—MARY FISHER AND ANN AUSTIN—THE

QUAKER CHILDREN.



THE Boston church seemed to feel for a while that it had done its duty, but after a time some strange people were found in their midst, who were called Quakers. Once more the church was up in arms. It wanted to know who the Quakers were. They found that they were the followers of George Fox, a man who mingled much poetic mysticism with the stern and self-denying religion. It is said that he had the power of perceiving evil thoughts in others, and could not pass by a wicked person without stopping to point out the path of reform. His own life was beautifully pure and sanctified, and it was certain that he could read minds and influence people as it is given to only a few to do in this world. The doctrine of the Friends, as the followers of Fox were called, was to be at peace with all the world, to put aside vanities and show, to trust to the guidance of the inner spirit, and to put scholarship and holiness above gain in all cases. They used no titles, and would not permit steeples on their churches, and dressed in plain garb of uniform color, in protest against all the gay ruffling and slashing which they saw in the streets of England, where Fox was born. Plainness of speech, as well as plainness of dress, was held to. Fox dressed in a suit of leather, but it may not have been so much to be different from other men as for the convenience of having one durable suit to wear upon his long journeys, and to keep out the damp and cold of the many dungeons in which he was placed. One of the things which most irritated the magistrates was the habit which the Quakers had of continually wearing their hats, believing that they should pay no more honor to one person than



James Monroe

another, and that it was a waste of time and sense to keep up so foolish a ceremony. The Friends insisted upon speaking in the churches, and interrupting the ministers when they overheard a remark to which they could not give their support. They believed that they had a call to bear their "message" into the very strongholds of their adversaries, and sometimes launched speeches against them so fiercely that it is little wonder that the Puritan ministers were irritated, especially as the Quakers objected to their receiving any money for their services. The fight they made against "hireling religion" was very bitter. The personal life of the Quakers was thoroughly pure. Indeed, to such a high strain did their minds grow, that it is difficult for any one in this busy and more commonplace age, to appreciate the fervor and beauty of their visions, their sacrifices, and their prophecies.

The Friends were first called Quakers by Justice Bennett, of Derby, in 1650, because the people trembled or quaked when they listened to the powerful words of Fox. Fox even had the courage when he was taken to London, in 1654, as a prisoner, and lodged in the old Mermaid Tavern, which Shakspeare and his friends made famous, to write to Cromwell, protesting against the drawing of the sword of war. The English had grown to fear the Quakers, even before they came to America.

In July, 1656, the first Quakers came to Boston. These were Mary Fisher and Ann Austin, who were imprisoned upon their arrival and sent back to the Barbadoes, from whence they had come. Mary Fisher had traveled, not alone over Europe, but in parts of Asia, preaching the word, and in the autumn of 1653, three years before her imprisonment at Boston, she had preached to the Cambridge students. Endicott was absent, when the "Swallow" arrived, with Mary Fisher and Ann Austin on board, but the deputy governor had their baggage searched, and all of their books and tracts taken, and an order was issued, which was the first act of Massachusetts against the Quakers, in which the women were called preachers of corrupt, heretical, and blasphemous doctrines. While they were at Boston they were confined in the jail, with the windows boarded up. No one was allowed to speak to them, or render them any assistance. They were stripped, and examined for signs of witchcraft, but as they fortunately had no moles or freckles upon them, they were cleared of that charge. The people were even cautioned not to feed them, but Nicolas Upshall, an old gentleman of Boston, who held very grave ideas of justice, gave the jailor money to provide for them. He was arrested and thrown in jail, and upon release, was exiled. They would not receive him at Plymouth, and he went to live

among the Indians, who had a friendly feeling for any who, like themselves, had the Puritan religion so obnoxiously thrust at them. The *Swallow* was barely out of sight, when a vessel from London arrived with eight Friends on board. Their boxes and chests were immediately searched for "hellish pamphlets," and, after many questions, they were sent to jail. They were ordered to return on the vessel which brought them, and when the master refused to take them at his own expense, he was imprisoned until he yielded. The people became dissatisfied with measures which could not be sustained by the laws of the colony, and on October 14th a law was passed which made every ship-master bringing Quakers to New England subject to a payment of one hundred pounds, or imprisonment until the money was forthcoming. Any Quakers who arrived should be put in the house of correction, severely whipped, kept at constant labor, and forbidden to talk with any one. There were also fines for bringing or sending Quaker tracts to the colony. Four of the federate colonies adopted this, but Rhode Island refused, and very cleverly held that the Quakers would not care to come to Rhode Island if they were not persecuted for doing so. Not that the Quakers had any desire to become notorious, or wished a vain martyrdom, but they naturally insisted upon trying to reform and soften the people who most reviled them.

It is not necessary to repeat the particulars of each of their abuses of these gentle Friends. They were all much alike in cruelty, and it became common to whip them from town to town and to keep them for many days in jail without food, with not even a bunch of straw to lie upon. The instrument used for whipping them was a three-corded knout, with knots tied in it. But the more the people suffered, the more converts they made. No one was allowed to entertain a Quaker without punishment, but for all of that, plenty of kind hearts were found who were willing to shelter them. Women were stripped naked and whipped, and one of them was whipped with a little babe only a few days old clinging to her breast.

Even the little children did not escape. Lawrence and Cassandra Southwick were banished from the colony under penalty of death, leaving behind them their poor little boy and girl in extreme poverty. They were fined for not attending regular worship, and having no money to pay the fine, were to be sold as slaves. It was hoped that they might bring ten pounds each, and so the treasury got the money which it ached for, but not a sea captain in the port of Boston would take them away, and the magistrates had no choice but to let them stay.

Another little child, Mary Wright, fourteen years of age, whose sister had been banished from Massachusetts, found her way from Long Island to Boston, that she might protest against the cruelty they were showing to these innocent people. Her words were so simple that even the hardened men about her were moved, and the secretary cried: "What! shall we be battled by such a one as this? Come, let us drink a dram."

Sweet Mary Dyer, hearing of some friends in prison, visited them, and was arrested for it and put under the same roof. She was banished, but returned to Boston to again visit the persecuted Friends, bringing with her linen to wrap the dead bodies of those who were to suffer. With her came a party of Friends, four of whom were women. They had guessed right; some were to suffer death, and Mary Dyer was one of them. The 27th of August she and two men were led to the Boston Common, with a great force of soldiers about them, and the drums beating. Mary Dyer walked as if to some great victory, with a smile upon her face. The two men were hung, and just as they had tied Mary Dyer's clothes about her feet a cry came ringing across the Common announcing a reprieve, which her young son had got for her. She was banished, but in a few months returned again to Boston. It was required of her, she said, to take her message there. Her husband wrote a letter begging that she might be spared, but Endicott would show no mercy, and the tender appeal for Friend Dyer's "most dearly beloved wife" only irritated him, so on a certain sad day, with a strong body of soldiers about her, for fear of the people who were moved to much pity in her case, she was led to the Common and hung there, for others to take example by, so her judges said.

The last man to be hung on Boston Common was William Leddra, who had dared to return after having been banished. He came into the court dragging a log behind him to which he was bound with chains, and answered all questions put to him with a fearlessness which all of his sect showed. But by this time the severity of the judges began to defeat itself. The people could not stand such cruelty, and they were frightened by the wild prophecies of Wenlock Christison. He was whipped through Boston, Roxbury and Dedham, and cast into the wilderness, but his prophecies remained behind him to frighten and subdue the people, for oddly enough many of them came true.

At length the King of England put a stop to the cruelty with which the Quakers were being treated, and the order was placed in the hands of Samuel Shattock, a Quaker, who had been banished from Boston under penalty of death. When Shattock walked before Endicott, with

his hat upon his head, he was met with the usual brutal questions, but when he showed his order, Governor Endicott, overcome with mortification, yet not forgetting his courtesy to an embassy from his sovereign, replaced the hat which he had snatched from Shattock's head and removed his own. The King ordered that all prisoners should be sent to England. This, it goes without saying, Endicott and his friends would not dare permit. They settled the question by dismissing the prisoners. However, the cruelties against the Quakers were revived later, and men and women were frequently tied to the end of a cart and whipped from town to town.

The last time a Quaker was imprisoned was at the time of Endicott's burial. An old woman, sixty-five years of age, made some remarks, true but not savory, about the dead magistrate. These persecutions lasted ten years in all, until again the King interfered, sending to Massachusetts and Connecticut orders that all persons of civil lives would fully enjoy the liberty of their conscience.

FOR FURTHER READING.

HISTORY—Mather's "Magnalia."

POETRY—Whittier's "Cassandra Southwick."
Longfellow's "John Endicott."

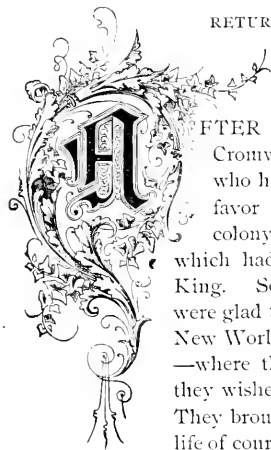


CHARLES I, OF ENGLAND (From the painting by Anton van Dyck.)

CHAPTER XXIII.

The Royalist Colony of Virginia.

GOVERNOR BERKELEY AND HIS REIGN—MORE TROUBLE WITH THE
INDIANS—THE PURITANS AGAIN VICTORIOUS—THE
RETURN OF THE STUARTS
TO POWER.



AFTER King Charles I had been beheaded, and Cromwell, the great dictator, ruled, many of those who had stood by the King, and were now in disfavor and poverty, hastened to the Virginian colony. This was the only one of all the colonies which had steadfastly believed in the cause of the King. So the disappointed royalists of England were glad to come by hundreds to the only spot in the New World in which all that they loved was respected—where they could have the church service which they wished, and where no one reviled the dead King. They brought with them their old ways. Used to the life of court and camp, they lived carelessly, spending their money without thought of its value, and caring little for the rights of those poorer or less powerful than themselves. They were a merry and elegant set, and even when their clothes were worn to rags, they were still wonderfully polite and lordly in their manners.

One of the pleasantest chronicles of colonial life has been left by one of the men who came over in the way described. This was Colonel Norwood, a young man of much bravery and originality, who was wrecked with his company on an island near Virginia. They starved there for ten days, and were taken to the mainland by a party of Indians who chanced to pass. Among the Indians they were treated with much kindness, and finally were guided from plantation to plantation through the hospitable Virginian colony until they reached the settlement. In these careless and genial old days, hospitality was not alone a matter of

impulse. There was a law ordering that any stranger coming to the house should be cared for as a guest, unless an agreement in writing was made with him before he entered. It can easily be imagined that not one person in a thousand would do such a thing, especially in an age where inhospitality was considered the worst of crimes.

After Governor Harvey had been sent back by the King to govern Virginia, the troubles between Maryland and Virginia continued to grow worse. In course of time he was succeeded by Sir Francis Wyat, and he, in time, by Sir William Berkeley, the best known of the Jamestown governors. He came to Jamestown early in 1642, amid the enthusiasm of the people. Nothing was so dear to him as his King, and he followed the royal commands in everything. Under his rule the colony prospered. But the colony took some very ill-advised measures, and in 1643 enacted laws which broke up the Puritan churches. When, a little later, there was a sudden rising among the Indians, and a great number of Virginian planters were killed, the Puritans saw in it a meting out of God's justice to their persecutors. The Indians were treated as enemies, and it was declared that there should be no peace between them and the whites, and that a savage might be shot whenever he was seen. The Indians planned a cunning revenge, and killed from three hundred to five hundred of the English in return for this cruel law. But for some reason which has never been explained, they drew off and retreated to the woods, instead of continuing their slaughter, as they might easily have done. This was twenty-two years after the Virginian massacre, which had so nearly extinguished the colony. But now the province was of more than thirty years' standing, with good rulers and well-organized means of defence. All the forces of the colony were turned upon the Indians, and they were driven from one point to another, many of them taken prisoners, and, finally, the great chief who ruled over all of those lands where Powhatan had once been King, was taken and brought to Jamestown. This chief's name was Opechancanough. He was nearly one hundred years old, and so crippled with paralysis that he could not even open his eyes to look at his victors, who crowded about him as he lay dying in prison. It had been the intention to take him to England to show the people there a man who had kept the colony in a state of terror for years, but he was cruelly shot by one of his guards, and so had the good fortune to die in his own country which he had loved deeply and fought for with extraordinary fierceness.

During all the time of the great Revolution in England, the Virginian



J. 2. Adams

colony was in a state of unusual prosperity. Tobacco was the chief export, and even in the midst of the war, men would not stop using tobacco; therefore, their income did not decrease. In England, there was no time to attend to colonial affairs, and Virginia grew stronger under home rule. There was plenty of skilled labor among the fifteen thousand Englishmen who made up the colony, and smelting works, hemp and flax culture, vine-raising, indigo-making, and the manufacture of bricks succeeded well. The plantations grew, and in the midst of them were built those hospitable, porch-surrounded mansions which we still associate with the colonial period. More than thirty vessels brought out English goods every year, and took back cargoes of native productions.

Virginia had had the courage to openly denounce the execution of King Charles I, and had made a law calling it treason for any one to speak against him, so in 1650 the Parliament in England said that there should be no more trade with these uncompliant colonies, and sent over commissioners to force allegiance to Cromwell. With these commissioners came a regiment of soldiers and one hundred and fifty prisoners of war, who were to be sold as servants in Virginia. They demanded the surrender of Jamestown, and it was found necessary to yield. The Puritans were more than a religious party at this time. They were a political party as well, both in England and America, and Cromwell's men who came to demand the surrender of the Virginian colonies represented the Puritans. The terms of the surrender were not unkind, and even gave consent that the common prayer book should be used for the next year. Consideration was shown Governor Berkeley and his officers, and they were given liberty to sell their estates, if they wished to leave the colony. A government was established, with William Clayborne and Richard Bennett at its head. They were men highly esteemed and very generous in their government. Clayborne, although he had had such quarrelsome experiences with Maryland, was a very sensible and clever gentleman, from one of the best families of England, and was one of the strongest upholders of the Protestant faith. Though he did not forget his old troubles with Maryland, and the serious grievance he had against Lord Baltimore, he was, nevertheless, considerate at first in his government of Maryland, now that it was partly in his power.

Governor Stone, now at the head of the Maryland colony, was the second Governor since Leonard Calvert. The few months that followed the triumph of Cromwell were very bewildering to Governor Stone.

Now he would have a message from the Long Parliament, saying that he must proclaim to his subjects the supremacy of the Dictator and give an oath of fidelity, and again would receive indignant letters from Lord Baltimore, saying that he owed allegiance to him. Several times he issued different manifestoes, until finally Bennett and Clayborne themselves made a proclamation saying that Maryland belonged to the Protector, and removing the Catholic officers, they appointed a Board of Puritan Commissioners.

So at length the Puritans, who had been so much abused, began to be the stronger party in both countries. They were men of determined characters, who believed that God led them in everything. Lord Baltimore protested against the easy way in which Stone had yielded to the Puritan will, and under his influence Stone gathered his forces and seized the State archives and all the arms and ammunition he could find. Then he took his force of two hundred men and embarked on twelve boats, which went up Chesapeake Bay to Severn, opposite Kent Island, where the Puritans were settled. Stone intended to enforce their submission. In the Severn was a large ship, the *Golden Lion*, which sent out shots among the advancing fleet as they came into the harbor, and Stone hurried his vessels farther up the creek and took his men on shore, with a good deal of noise and bluster. But while they were gone, the Puritans took possession of all their vessels, sending a detachment by land to force the Catholics up the peninsula. While they were retreating, they suddenly met one hundred and twenty men who had come out from Providence to meet them. With enemies on both sides it was necessary to fight, so crying, "Hey for St. Marys," they rushed at the enemy. But the Puritans cried, "In the name of God, fall on; God is our strength," and elated with that stern frenzy which carried them through such awful trials, they killed and wounded fifty of the Catholics and took all but four or five prisoners. Only four of the Puritans died in consequence of the engagement. Four of the leaders were killed, and Governor Stone was sentenced to death, but some of the Puritans begged for his life and he was spared.

And now a letter came from the Protector, forbidding the Virginians to have anything to do with the affairs of Maryland until the boundaries could be settled. Lord Baltimore was permitted to send out a deputy governor to keep his colony quiet, but it was two years before matters were settled, and the liberal laws of Maryland ratified by the English government. For several years all went well in Virginia. Bennett resigned his office in favor of Edward Diggs, who was followed,



CHARLES II. OF ENGLAND.

in turn, by Governor Mathews. There were still two distinct political parties in Virginia, but their interests were too closely allied for them to keep quarreling with each other, and in these peaceful years many laws were passed which were of great value to the colonists.

After Cromwell died, the Puritans began to lose strength in Virginia, and when King Charles II was put on the throne of his father in England, the old royalist party of Virginia once more became the ruling power, and Sir William Berkeley was elected Governor. He sent a glad letter to the King telling how happy he was to serve the royal family again, and a day was set apart to the memory of King Charles I, to be kept alive by yearly feast on the 13th of January. Berkeley did not put the distinguished Puritans out of office, but let them continue under him. The House of Representatives was not to meet unless there was positive need for it, so it chanced that for fifteen years there was no popular election. Tobacco currency was the money used in paying the State officers, and the salary of the Governor was equal to the whole annual expenditure of the colony of Connecticut.

The slavery of negroes was steadily increasing, and a law was made condemning all children of mixed blood to serve as slaves for life. There were a great many white slaves, also, brought from the jails and slums of England, and these were much lower than the blacks, for they were vicious, while the negroes were only ignorant. The Church of England once more became the established church of the colony, but the Puritans were not persecuted, although they were held in check and not allowed to preach, even in private. In 1662 a fine was imposed upon all persons who would not subscribe to the orthodox religion. The Quakers here, as elsewhere, were held in disfavor, and many of them were driven into North Carolina. Penalties were still imposed for the purpose of making the colonists raise more corn and less tobacco, for the supply of tobacco was greater than the demand for it.

The English made an effort to confine all the foreign trade to themselves, but this they found it very difficult to do. In 1663 a plot was discovered to overthrow the government. This may have been the outcome of the discontent which the people felt at having these trade laws enforced. The plot was discovered and four of the ring-leaders hung. After this a day was set for thanksgiving for the defeat of the conspiracy, on the 13th of September.

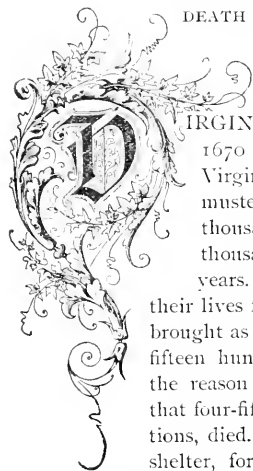
FOR FURTHER READING:

FICTION—W. A. Carruthers' "The Cavaliers of Virginia."

CHAPTER XXIV.

“Hey, for St. Mary’s!”

THE COLONY OF VIRGINIA—THE INDIANS—THE UPRISING OF BACON AND
HIS FRIENDS—RESTRICTION OF THE GOVERNOR’S RIGHTS—
BACON USURPS THE GOVERNMENT—RETURN OF
BERKELEY—DESERTION OF JAMESTOWN—
DEATH OF BACON—BREAKING UP
OF BACON’S PARTY.



VIRGINIA was founded upon a wrong basis. In 1670 there were forty thousand people under the Virginian government. The militia of the province mustered eight thousand men. Of these forty thousand, two thousand were negro slaves and six thousand were white servants bound for a term of years. Many of these were soldiers who had risked their lives for liberty in England, and failing, had been brought as prisoners of war to the colonies. Every year fifteen hundred white servants were brought over, and the reason that the colony was not much greater was that four-fifths of them, when put upon the new plantations, died. They had but little clothing and but poor shelter, for money was not plenty. In England, the price of tobacco had been reduced, and the price of goods which the tobacco was sent in exchange for had been raised to extravagant prices. The Virginia planter, therefore, got but little, and as they all took it upon themselves to maintain large mansions and generously entertain great numbers of guests, they economized at the expense of their slaves.

The colony was not a religious one at any time, and though Maryland and Virginia did quarrel upon religious grounds, this was but a cover for politics. It is true that there were forty-eight parishes in the colony, but most of these were illy provided with ministers. Nearly all of them were sixty or seventy miles in extent, and could not have

been well attended to even by the most zealous ministers, which the Virginian clergymen were not. They liked the free living of the colony as well as did their flocks, and were not held in much awe. There were no free schools in the colony, nor was there any printing, for which Governor Berkeley was sincerely thankful. The taxes grew worse from year to year, and the officers of the government more purse-proud and arrogant. The people had no voice in the government at all. Finally, in 1673, the whole colony was given as a present by the King to two of his favorites, Lord Culpepper and the Earl of Arlington. This meant more taxes, and the people became thoroughly discontented. The Indians, also, were a great source of annoyance and anxiety to them, and the colonists wished to organize an armed force for protection, but Governor Berkeley was afraid of injuring the Indian trade, from which he drew a large revenue, and would not permit the people to organize for defense. But when a quiet farmer was found murdered at his own door, the colonists determined to take revenge, regardless of what the government might say. Two forces, one under Captain Brent and the other under Colonel Mason, started out. They invaded two wigwams, killing at least twenty-four Indians. This was the signal for a general Indian war. Four great Indian tribes united to take revenge—the Susquehannocks, Doegs, Senecas and Piscataways. Both in Maryland and Virginia the planters were badly alarmed, and they united in an expedition, sending out one thousand men, with Colonel John Washington and Major Thomas Truman, of Maryland. They surrounded the fort where the Susquehannocks had taken refuge, and were cruel enough to kill five of the chiefs who came out to peacefully parley with them. Such a dishonorable act, opposed as it was to all rules of warfare, brought a severe reproof from the Governor and Council. But the Indians entered upon a systematic revenge. Before spring came, sixty of the colonists had been killed upon their farms, and the Indians were forever lurking in the shadow of the bushes, and under the river banks. No one felt safe. The people crowded together in the strongest houses, and at night barricaded their windows, and slept with their arms beside them.

The colonists begged the Governor to give them some protection, but that rich old gentleman, rapidly making money for himself, and contented with his own fine living, paid no attention to their appeals. The young men, especially, became indignant at his selfishness and carelessness, and made up their minds that if he did not come to their aid, they would give open war on their own account. Among

the young man was Nathaniel Bacon, who lived upon an estate called "Curles," not far from Richmond, where Bacon Quarter Branch still stands. He had a plantation, and it chanced that his overseer upon this place was one of the unfortunates on whom the Indians chose to take their revenge. Bacon was much attached to his overseer and he swore that these outrages must be stopped. Though he was not yet thirty, he was such a daring and independent young man that all of his neighbors looked to him as their leader, and when he had sent again to the Governor, asking him for a commission against the Indians, and been met with silence, he determined to march out against the savages, regardless of consequences. A large force of men gathered about him; but even after that, Bacon sent once more to the Governor asking for a commission. As it did not come, they started on their march. They had gone but a little way when they were overtaken by a messenger from the Governor calling them all rebels, and forbidding them to proceed in any warlike action. The question was, then, whether any of them dare disobey the government of the colony. Fifty-seven of them had the courage, and went on with Bacon into the forest, but some of them feared that their property would be confiscated, and deserted him. In a short time they had annihilated the tribe of the Susquehannocks and returned to their farms.

The Governor had sent a troop of horses after the "rebels," as he called them, and while the capital was thus deserted a revolt broke out among the planters at the south of Jamestown, so that when the Governor returned he found everything in such a turbulent condition that he had to yield to some of the demands of the citizens. They asked that they might no longer be taxed for the several useless forts which their hard-earned money had to support, and also that the assembly, which had not been changed for fifteen years, might be dissolved, and the people allowed to elect their officers. It showed how well the people thought of Bacon that he was one of the new members elected. Bacon, confident and proud, came promptly to Jamestown, notwithstanding the fact that the title of "rebel" still hung over him. Governor Berkeley met him in great state. "Mr. Bacon," said he, "have you forgotten how to be a gentleman?" "No, may it please your honor," the young man replied. "Then I will take your parole," said the Governor. Later, in the presence of all the assembly, Bacon delivered a written apology to the Governor for his independent and headstrong actions. The Governor seemed to be really attached to him—and indeed few could help admiring his courage and brilliancy. But

Bacon did not trust the Governor, and thought he was trying to deceive him, and he ran away from Jamestown to rejoin his neighbors. Some people say that he was afraid he would be arrested again, and that he had to flee for his life. Perhaps he did think so, but it is hardly possible that the stern old Governor would have dared to treat a young man of high family so, although he was careless enough of the lives of the poor. In a few days, Bacon came marching back to Jamestown, with an army of five hundred men. The Governor tried to gather the militia about him, but their sympathies were with Bacon, and in a short time the insurgents were in the capital, camped upon the green near the State House, and holding all the streets. The assembly was called together, and Bacon stood by the corner of the State House, guarded by a double file of soldiers.

Berkeley came out on the steps, while the assembly hung out of the windows and cried to Bacon to shoot him, but the young rebel swore that he would not hurt a hair of his head nor any other man's, but that he wanted a commission to save the lives of his neighbors from the Indians, and reminded the Governor that he had often promised to give it to him and had broken his word. When the Governor turned and walked away, followed by the council, and Bacon saw that no attention was to be paid to his command, he grew furious, and swearing that he would kill Governor, council and assembly, and himself last, told his men to point their fusils at the windows. All the people shouted for the commission, and finally a handkerchief was waived from the window in sign of peace. The soldiers were sent away, and Bacon went alone to the assembly room, giving them some of his hot eloquence. But every one was afraid to act, and the Governor would do nothing. By morning the Governor changed his mind. He probably saw that there was nothing to do but to yield. Bacon got his commission, and immediately began organizing one thousand men to start a campaign against the Indians.

After the Governor had yielded one point, he was forced by the people to yield many. The Governor's fees were restricted, and he was no longer allowed to have a monopoly of the foreign trade. Taxes were regulated upon a certain system; so hot and furious did the members of the assembly grow in talking over these matters that many feuds were started in Virginia families, which continued over one hundred years. As soon as Bacon's back was turned, the Governor once more declared him to be a rebel, but when he ventured to say this before twelve hundred men whom he had collected about him for the purpose of

forming a militia, they turned their backs upon him and deserted, and let the fields ring with their cries of "Bacon!" "Bacon!" As soon as Bacon learned that he was once more proclaimed an outlaw, he promptly marched to meet the Governor, who fled hurriedly across the Chesapeake, leaving the province of Virginia to the will of his vigorous young opponent. Practically, Bacon was now Governor, and he began reorganizing immediately, calling a convention for the purpose of revising the laws. The matter was a very grave one, and the men who stood about Bacon knew that at any time they might be defeated and suffer the penalties of rebellion. The national revolution itself did not call for sterner constancy.

One of the best inspirations of these men was a lady, Mrs. Drummond the wife of one of Bacon's closest councilors. Her advice was followed in many matters, for she was a woman of great spirit and eloquence, and seemed to influence all who came near her.

But Berkeley was not without friends, and succeeded, through the treachery of some of Bacon's men, in getting possession of an armed fleet. As soon as the royalists through the country saw that there was a show of success for the Governor's arms, they came flocking to him, and in a short time he was in possession of a very large force. He took Jamestown on September 17th, and at once re-established the old form of government and reinstated his friends in their places. Bacon had dealt some terrible blows to the Indians, and thinking that there was no need of keeping his men from their plantations, had allowed his army to dissolve. He called them together again and hurried across the country to the capital. Throwing up some rude breastworks on a hill, he awaited the attack of the Governor. It is said that he captured certain Virginian ladies from Jamestown, and taking them to his camp, sent word that he would hold them as hostages, and that they were to be placed before his men, in case the people of the town should make a sally upon them. If this was the case, it was no wonder that the men of Jamestown could not make a respectable defence. The gentlewomen, be it said, were safely returned in course of time. Berkeley and his friends fled from Jamestown, getting upon their boats in the night and taking away their household goods, and everything, either of private or state nature, belonging to them. When Bacon entered the town in the morning, he found a deserted city, in which there was not even victuals for his men. He determined that the wasteful and arrogant cavaliers should never return, and ordered his army to set fire to the city. Every house in Jamestown was burned to the ground.

Thus perished the oldest English settlement in America. Bacon settled at Gloucester Point, and from there continued his raids upon the Indians, but in the midst of his victories he sickened and died. To this day the people of Virginia have not ceased to quarrel about the character of Bacon. A man so brilliant and determined could not but have warm friends and warmer foes. His party did not live long after his death. As soon as Berkeley heard what had happened, he sent out a force which captured several of the leading rebels. A proclamation of peace was made from which Bacon's friends were excepted. At length their stronghold at West Point was lost. Drummond, Bacon's dear friend, was taken. The old cavalier Governor met him with much ceremony, and said, with a show of courtliness, "Mr. Drummond, you are more than welcome. I am more glad to see you than any other man in Virginia. Mr. Drummond, you shall be hanged within half an hour." Worse, his accomplished wife and her five little children were driven out from the town into the forest. Many of the rebels were killed, and the bones of Bacon were everywhere looked for, that they might be hung in chains upon the gibbet, but to this day the place of his burial has never been discovered.

Affairs became so serious after a time, what with imprisonment, banishment, confiscation of property and many sorts of tortuous punishments, that the King sent some trusted men from England to inquire into the state of affairs. Berkeley was taken to England, where he died without having had a chance to defend his conduct to the King whose approval he had always been so anxious for. It is said that he died of a broken heart, because the King disapproved of his conduct, and called him an old fool. Bacon had shown the people how strong they were, and planted in the colony a stern determination to preserve legislative rights. When the time of the national revolution came, Virginia was one of the strongest pillars of the new edifice.

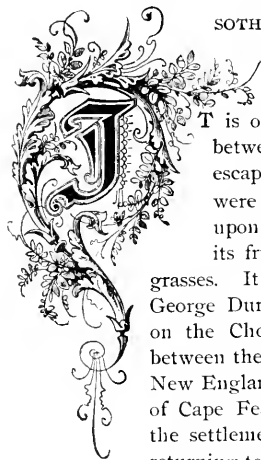
FOR FURTHER READING:

FICTION—Carruther's "The Cavalier of Virginia."
Carruther's "The Knights of the Horseshoe."

CHAPTER XXV.

Each for Himself.

THE CAROLINAS—THE PROPRIETORS AND THEIR “GRAND MODEL”—
THE ALBEMARLE SETTLEMENT—REMOVAL OF CHARLES-
TON—THE SPANISH BUCCANEERS—SETH
SOTHELL—QUAKER RULE.



It is odd that the beautiful stretch of coast lying between Florida and Virginia should so long have escaped permanent settlement. Possibly there were many unknown settlements of a quiet nature upon it, and that many a coaster had landed upon its fruitful shores and strayed among its silken grasses. It is known that one Quaker, by the name of George Durant, who was fond of solitude, built a cabin on the Chowan river, and paddled his canoe about between the banks of moss-hung trees. A company of New England men had also purchased land at the mouth of Cape Fear river, but for some mysterious reason left the settlement and their herds of cattle behind them, returning to New England with a very bad report of the spot they had visited. But it is quite possible that they were too indolent to undergo the hardships of new colonization, or that their treatment of the Indians obliged them to leave. They left a paper hidden in a post, warning everyone who landed there against the country. This paper was found by a company of men from Barbadoes, but they were not dissuaded from settling there, the country “lying commodiously by the river’s side” being more eloquent than the written words of the men from New England. These settled about twenty or thirty miles up Cape Fear river.

A very short time after this, settlement under a king’s charter was made in this country. The King gave to certain gentlemen all the territory, which included the present States of North and South Carolina

and Georgia, with the usual indefinite western boundary. The proprietors to whom the King gave this present were nine noble lords, one of them being Clarendon, Lord Chancellor of England, another being Duke of Albemarle, who was the leader in the restoration of the King to the throne. Besides these were Lord Berkeley and the Earl of Shaftesbury. These men laid great plans for their colony. It was to be the model settlement of the world. The constitution was prepared by John Locke, the great philosopher and statesman. So carefully prepared was this fundamental constitution that the colonies had already been established three years before they were finished. It is really worth while to quote from this "Grand Model." Eight proprietors were to be constituted lords, the eldest to be Palatine of the province, and upon his death the eldest of the survivors to succeed him. Seven other offices, of admiral, chamberlain, chancellor, constable, chief justice, high steward and treasurer, were to be divided among the others—the eldest always to have choice of a vacant place. All the rights of property were hereditary in the male line; in lack of direct male heirs, male descendants through the female line succeeded, and after them, heirs general. There were orders of hereditary nobility called land-graves and cassiques. The domains of the proprietors were called seigniories. Every seignior, barony and colony contained twelve thousand acres; each county four hundred and eighty thousand acres, of which three-fifths were to be owned by the people and two-fifths by the hereditary nobility. There was an absolute prohibition against the entrance of any common people into the titled class, and the highest dignity to which a common man might attain was to become lord of the manor, which manor must consist of not less than three thousand or more than twelve thousand acres. There was another small honor to be gained under the jurisdiction of the lords of the seignior. The men who attained to this dignity were called Leetmen. There were eight supreme courts and very elaborate laws for a parliament. The very amusements of the children were arranged, as well as the fashions of the women's gowns. All entertainments and decorations, marriages, burials, and every other circumstance and happening of home-life, was arranged for as accurately as if men were dices upon a chess-board.

In the three years that Locke spent preparing this remarkable and elaborate system of government, two colonies had become very well established in Carolina, as the proprietors called their new possession. On May 29, 1664, Sir John Yeamans brought over the first expedition. The province of which Yeamans was appointed Governor extended

from Cape Fear to the St. Johns, in Florida. Sir William Berkeley, of Virginia, was asked by the proprietors to establish a government on the Chowan. At the head of this he placed William Drummond, the man who afterwards was Bacon's faithful friend in the Virginian revolution. This settlement was called Albemarle, and here, while this wonderful piece of law-making for their benefit was going on over in England, the busy people of the settlement had made practical and simple laws quite sufficient for their needs.

The fact that they could never be more than leetmen or lords of manors, was not troubling them at all. They were building houses and canoes, clearing land and planting fields, quite unconscious of the fact that a great, imaginary population of landgraves and cassiques was going to watch over them. The New England people began to come down and settle along the coast, and a company of Bermuda people had taken up lands by the Pasquotank river.

Inducements were offered by the settlement at Albemarle to English maidens and widows, promising them honest and stalwart husbands if they were only civil and under fifty years of age. The colony had also the appearance of offering a refuge to runaway debtors, for it had a law which permitted no debt contracted outside of Albemarle to be sued for within five years. As a consequence, the reckless spendthrifts of London found this a very convenient place of abode. Marriage was a civil contract, probably because there were so few ministers in the colony. There was no wish to discourage colonial lovers by making their wedding difficult. As for the great fundamental constitution, no one paid any attention to it, and though some men rejoiced in the title of landgraves and cassiques, their inferiors gave them little added respect on this account, and the "Great Model" was finally rejected by the assembly of South Carolina in 1698.

In July, 1669, Captain William Sayle was sent over with the first expedition which the proprietors had directly made. Sayle was commissioned Governor of that part of Carolina lying south and west of Cape Carteret, or Cape Romain, as it is now called. Sayle and Joseph West reached Port Royal in January of 1670, and finally chose a place for settlement on Ashley river. This they named Charleston, which still bears the name that they then gave it. This colony did not succeed very well, for the proprietors kept a heavy drain upon their treasury. Most of the hard labor was done by negro slaves. There were too few industrious and worthy men in the country, and far too many of the dissipated and vicious class of English criminals. Sir

John Yeaman's management had been extended over these people with whom he was unpopular, and when he retired he had a large fortune, wrenched from the people and the Indians. Joseph West was appointed Governor in his place. West was immensely popular, and affairs, under his administration, began to improve immediately.

Meanwhile, the people of Albemarle had begun to express open discontent, and sent an address to the proprietors asking for a Governor who could understand their necessities. Many plans were tried, and a great deal of money spent on these people, who seemed unreasonably hard to manage. Governor after Governor was tried, but none proved efficient, and at length Seth Sothell arrived, in 1683, to take his position as Governor, to which he had been appointed some time before, but having been stolen by the Turks on his way over, had been held in captivity for some time. While Albemarle was passing through all this trouble in Northern Carolina, Charleston, under the management of Joseph West, was continuing in prosperity. It is true that there were feuds between the Puritans of New England, who had come down, and the royalists whom the proprietors in Old England had sent out. The Huguenots of France also came here, and a large company of French artisans and farmers, who understood silk manufacture, vine growing, etc.

As for the people on the Ashley river, they saw that they had made a mistake in settling so far up the stream, and in 1680 the old town was abandoned and the foundation of a new Charleston laid upon the present site of the city of that name. As they had time to lay this with care, they saw to it that the streets were large and capacious, and that good spots were reserved for the building of churches and a town house, and artillery grounds for the exercise of their militia, and wharfs for the convenience of their trade and shipping. The people came to this colony in great numbers, from England, Ireland and the West Indies. It goes without saying that the manners of this mixed company were rather loose, though for this very reason less likely to have severe church and political differences. West was a man of determination, and saw to it that his militia was kept well armed and the colony well protected from the Indians. But out of their greed for money grew a most dishonorable method of conflict, which placed a price upon the head of every Indian captive, who was then sold to slave traders. When this was brought to the notice of the proprietors, however, they put an immediate stop to this barbarous practice. The old Spanish buccaneers found Charleston a most convenient retreat, and so careless

were they with their money, and such good drinkers and story-tellers, that the citizens encouraged their coming, and when one of the Governors imprisoned some of them, the people protested so that he was obliged to release them.

One act of cruelty on their part, however, brought about the enmity of the Carolinians. A company of Scotch Presbyterians had come, under the leadership of Lord Cardross, and made a settlement at Port Royal, in 1684. Three Spanish galleys appeared suddenly before this little colony in 1686, and destroyed the place. They landed again south of Charleston, at Bear's Bluff, and sacked the settlement and took Governor Morton's brother prisoner. They intended to keep these depredations up along the coast, in retaliation for the wrecking and despoiling of some of their galleys by the colonists, but they were met by a terrible hurricane, and the galley on which Morton was held was run ashore, so that she could not be got off. The Spaniards set fire to the galley where Mr. Morton lay in chains, and he was burned to death. England would not permit the colonists to move against the Spaniards at St. Augustine, however, fearing that it might involve the two great home nations in war.

Seth Sothell, who has been mentioned as the Governor appointed in 1683, proved to be a treacherous and selfish man, and used the governorship of North Carolina for his own gain. When he heard that there was dissatisfaction in South Carolina, he called his followers together and seized the government of the other colony. Having everything under his control, he began to pile up a great fortune by a system of oppression and taxation. The proprietors were in despair, but finally appointed one Governor for all the province, north and south, who was to have his residence at Charleston. Philip Ludwell was this general Governor. He was sent over from England, and having no experience in colonial affairs, soon showed that he was not strong enough to manage the discontented settlers. Thomas Smith, one of the Carolinian planters, was put in his place. He was a quiet, discreet and judicious man, who, without governing brilliantly or decisively, brought many benefits to the colony during the two years that he ruled. It was during his administration that rice was first planted in this country. The rice grew wonderfully in the marshes along the rivers, of a superior quality to that of the east. It was but a short time before it became one of Carolina's most valuable products. Thomas Smith found the complexities of government too much for him, and wrote to the proprietors asking them to send over one of themselves to govern.

They did so, choosing John Archdale, a Quaker, who had bought out the interest of one of the older proprietors. With his hat upon his head, dressed in his quaint Quaker garment, this moderate and deliberate man stood before the assembly of the Carolinas, and told them gravely and firmly how he meant to manage them. He kept his word, with the quiet faithfulness of his sect. He inquired patiently into every complaint which reached his ears, selected a council from among his citizens, and, in spite of the fact that he was a Quaker, and opposed to war, trained the militia better than it had ever been trained before, looking to every detail of military matters himself. There were already many other Quakers at Albemarle, and these increased in numbers, and became, it goes without saying, his warm supporters. All of the colonists recognized his judicious rule, and after having got the colony into a wholesome state, appointed a successor, Joseph Blake, and returned to England. Joseph Blake ruled for four years over a colony now well established and well ordered.

FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Ramsay's "South Carolina."
Williamson's "North Carolina."
FICTION—Skitt, "Fisher's River."
Simms' "Cassique of Kiawah."

CHAPTER XXVI.

Man's Inhumanity to Man.

ATTACK OF INDIANS ON NEW NETHERLAND—DESTRUCTION OF
PAVONIA—PERSECUTION OF LUTHERANS AND QUAKERS AT
NEW AMSTERDAM—SLAVERY AMONG THE DUTCH—
ENGLISH ENCROACHMENTS—SURRENDER
OF NEW NETHERLAND—SETTLE-
MENT OF NEW JERSEY.



WHILE Peter Stuyvesant was absent conquering New Sweden, a terrible calamity fell upon the Dutch behind him in the settlement. The Indians, realizing that this would be a fortunate time for attack, swarmed through New Amsterdam one day. The people, knowing their helplessness, treated them with as much policy as possible, and succeeded in getting them to leave the place at sunset and cross to Governor's Island. It was hoped that, by a conference between the chiefs and the magistrates, some arrangements for peace might be made, but it was not yet night when the Indians grew bolder, and the military had to be called from the fort to protect the people. The Indians fled before the soldiers, took once more to their canoes and paddled out across the dark waters, yelling and howling as they went. The people watched with anxiety to see what would happen next, and in a short time a light springing up over Pavonia and Hoboken told them that the Indians had fallen upon the helpless settlers there. In a little while the fires died down, and at New Amsterdam they knew that Pavonia and Hoboken were burned to the ground and the people killed. As it proved later, only one man of each settlement was left alive, but the women and children were carried away as prisoners. The people at Staten Island knew neither of the threatenings of the Indians at New Amsterdam or of the destruction of



Andrew Jackson

the villages, and were sleeping when the savages, mad with thirst for blood, came upon them. Twenty-three of the ninety people who lived among the beautiful hills of the island were killed, and all the houses were burned.

And now the people would have given all they possessed for a glimpse of the one-legged old soldier whom they had so frequently abused, and they sent for Stuyvesant with all possible haste. He returned, full of determination, and gave heart to the people as soon as he appeared among them, though now for three days the Indians had been everywhere, ravaging and killing. No man knew better than he when to fight and when to treat for peace, and now he urged the people to cultivate friendly relations with the Indians and to rescue the prisoners with ransoms. Far north upon the Hudson, at Rensselaerswyck, the sturdy young patroon, Van Rensselaer, had already been following this policy, and had secured a renewal of the treaty with the Mohawks, so that that part of the country was spared. For several years comparative peace was kept between the Dutch and the Indians, but in 1658 trouble began. Peter Stuyvesant, after the massacre of 1655, just related, had induced the people to build fences about their villages and prepare themselves more carefully against attack. He also advised them to treat the Indians with fairness, but this they would not do, and the trouble of 1658 was brought about because a band of Indians were fired upon for being noisy and drunken. It is needless to say, however, that the whisky which put them in this condition was obtained from the Dutch. For this wanton killing the Indians took a prompt revenge by murdering farmers and burning their houses, and for six years the Esopus Indians and the Dutch were almost continually at war with each other. In 1663 the Indians fell upon the village of Wildwyck, plundering the houses and setting fire to them. Many men were killed, and over forty women and children taken as prisoners. Then the Dutch were aroused to a wholesome resistance, which ended in a subduing of the Indians for a short time.

But, in spite of all this discouragement, New Netherland continued to prosper. Gradually, the people gained power and their governors yielded some of their arbitrary rights. The English towns upon Long Island became more numerous, but for the most part they lived quietly with their Dutch neighbors. Much less religious than the Massachusetts government, there was far less persecution among them. Holland was the most tolerant of countries, and her colony kept, to a certain degree, the policy which had animated the mother country in dealing with men

of new and unpopular religions. Yet at one time the Lutherans were forbidden to hold meetings in New Amsterdam, and a poor shoemaker was imprisoned for addressing them. The Quakers, too, were persecuted for a time, but it could hardly be expected that any class of men, however patient, would care to be railed against as the Dutch were by the Quakers. The women who spoke upon the streets against the steeple houses, the hireling preachers and the empty ceremonies to which the Quakers so intensely objected, were thrown into prison. One Friend, Robert Hodgson, was treated most shamefully, being chained to a wheelbarrow and made to do hard work, while a negro beat him with a four-inch tarred rope. At night he was thrust into a dungeon. This continued for several days. His sentence condemned him to hard labor two years, but at length he was terribly whipped for speaking his message to those about him, and was so torn with the rods that his life was despaired of for a time. A sister of Peter Stuyvesant prayed that he might be released. When Hodgson recovered he was released, but banished. The Quakers increased rapidly, as they always did where they were persecuted. Finally, a quiet English farmer who professed the faith was sent to Holland to appear before the directors in Amsterdam. Peter Stuyvesant's ambition to have the sect crushed had overleaped itself, for the directors of Amsterdam reproved him severely for the manner in which he had treated these people, and told him that everyone in the colony should be allowed to follow his own conscience. After this, the Friends were no longer molested, and the director had the grace to be a little ashamed of his actions.

Slavery was rapidly increasing in New Amsterdam. By 1664, Africans were brought by hundreds to New Netherland, but the Dutch themselves were fond of agriculture, and did not grow to have that complete dependence upon the negro which the Virginians had. Slavery, therefore, never developed its worst feature among the Dutch. The English kept steadily encroaching upon the land which the Dutch claimed. Lord Baltimore asserted that the whole South river region was included in his patent, and sent a delegation from Maryland to demand a surrender for the province. The people in the South river country were willing enough to yield. They were dissatisfied with the management of the Dutch West India Company, and were perfectly willing to swear allegiance to any who would give them more comforts and protection. The claims remained unsettled until after the surrender of New Netherlands. Then the Dutch and Swedes of the South river district quietly yielded to the government of England. New Haven

and the other English towns along the Sound and on Long Island were brought under the jurisdiction of Connecticut, by a grant of land which John Winthrop got from Charles II. This new patent covered not only Long Island, but all northern New Netherland.

Peter Stuyvesant was greatly alarmed for the independence of his countrymen. For two years he fought it as best he could. He was a man of statesmanlike ability and his policy was clever, but the English were very determined. They sent men to stir up discontent in the English towns situated in New Netherland, and forced Stuyvesant to consent that the Dutch should not interfere in the least with the English towns in his province. One John Scott was sent to inquire into the English titles upon Long Island and carried with him the news that the King had granted all Long Island to the Duke of York. The English towns of that district, Hempstead, Gravestead, Flushing, Newton and Jamaica, united, choosing John Scott as their president. He started through Long Island, with a force of one hundred and fifty men, to reduce the Dutch towns to obedience, but he succeeded in doing but little, and was finally imprisoned by the magistrates at Hartford for asserting his own rights, instead of those of the country he represented.

The English continued to buy up ground from the Indians which the Dutch had already purchased from them, and the King kept on giving grants of land to his favorites, which included the territory that the Dutch had long occupied. In April, 1664, a force of three or four hundred men under the command of Colonel Richard Nicolls, who acted as Lieutenant-Governor for the Duke of York, sailed for England to enforce the Duke's claims to New Netherland. Peter Stuyvesant heard of it, and did all he could to prevent it. To him, Dutch independence was more than life. He had the fortifications repaired and enlarged, raised money, procured ammunition, stored provisions in the fort and drilled his men, but in the midst of these preparations he got word from the West India Company saying that the fleet under Nicolls had been sent to force the obedience of the Massachusetts colonies, and that New Netherland need have no fear. Stuyvesant believed that this was so, and went up to Fort Orange on business.

Though it was true that Nicolls had come to see to Massachusetts affairs, he had also come to reduce New Netherland, and, in the course of a month, brought his four ships up the bay before New Amsterdam. His men seized the block-house on Staten Island and blockaded the harbor. Then a proclamation was sent out that none should be harmed who submitted quietly to the King of England. Stuyvesant hurried

down from Fort Orange, and prepared to make a defence, but no one would stand by him. When he tore up a letter from Nicolls demanding surrender, the people made him put it together again, and the mortified old Governor, who would so gladly have died for the sake of his colony, had to yield to them. He stood on the walls of the fort by the side of a gun while the ships passed by him up the harbor and dropped their anchors near the fort. He did not order the gunner to fire. He feared, perhaps, that his people would not sustain him, and that in the end the Dutch would suffer more for such an act, but it can be imagined that his proud old heart broke at the humiliation.

He wrote to Nicolls asking that a consultation might be held, but received answer that the white flag must be hung from the fort or Nicolls would come upon the town with ships and soldiers. The people of the town got up a petition asking Stuyvesant to yield. They said that they could see nothing but defeat, with all its terrors, before them, whereas if they yielded, the enemy generously promised them protection. The hired soldiers in the fort were as ready to prey upon the town as to fight the Englishmen. Stuyvesant knew this, and on September 8, 1664, New Netherland surrendered. The troops were put on a ship bound for Holland, and the English flag was raised over Fort Amsterdam, which was henceforth called Fort James. The Englishmen called New Amsterdam New York, and Fort Orange was given its present name of Albany.

A few weeks later, New Amstel, on the Delaware, was reduced, and the Dutch no longer had any authority on American soil. They seemed to take very kindly to their change of government, and matters went on with them very much the same as they had before. There was no feeling of bitterness between the two nations, and the English had the wisdom to appoint some of the Dutch to the government of offices. The city officers were left unchanged. Patroons owning the great outlying tracts of land had only to change their patent and take an oath of allegiance to England. The Duke of York gave many grants of land to Englishmen. New Netherland was divided into two provinces, one of which was given to Lord Berkeley, the elder brother of Sir William Berkeley, of Virginia, and the other to Sir George Carteret. Carteret's province was named New Jersey, and in June, 1665, Captain Philip Carteret, a brother of the proprietor, arrived as Governor, with a company of men. He settled his thirty emigrants at the point which he named, and which is still known as Elizabeth-point. In 1666, Newark was settled by a party from Connecticut.

These were joined in a little time by English people from other settlements, who made it a condition of their joining the company, that none should be admitted as freemen, or have the right to vote or hold office, who were not members of the Congregational Church.

Massachusetts was much alarmed with the fear that it might be forced to come under the Duke of York's patent. The Duke of York was a Catholic, and to have been placed under his authority would be the greatest pain for the Puritans which could be imagined. She, therefore, refused to help Nicolls, although Connecticut and New Haven gave them what help they could against the Dutch. After the surrender of New Netherland, the Duke's commissioners held a conference with representatives from Connecticut, and the boundary lines of the provinces were decided upon, Long Island being given to New York. The Duke's laws were put in force, and though there were objections to some portions, they were accepted in peaceful discontent. Nicolls ruled for about three years, while England and Holland, on the other side of the world, were engaged in war. When peace was declared, Nicolls asked that he might be permitted to go home. He had always greatly resented the loss of New Jersey, and thought the Duke of York had made a great mistake in giving away this beautiful country. Colonel Francis Lovelace succeeded Nicolls as Governor. He served very honorably for four years. In no colony of America were so many people of different nations and tongues gathered. At the time of the surrender of New Netherland eighteen different languages were spoken in New Amsterdam. Though it was under English rule, it continued to be Dutch in its peculiarities. The people were hospitable and kindly, though very simple and a little slow. They educated their children with care, and were proud of their respectability. The houses were well built and their inhabitants solid and worthy citizens. Their gardens and orchards prospered wonderfully. Along the river bank were lines of locust trees, under which the people walked in the evening. A canal was built to help commerce and a bridge constructed over it. An exchange was started for trading purposes and commerce rapidly increased. The fort held forty pieces of cannon, and was well built, being of stone, with a thick rampart of earth. Within this stood the mansion of the Governor.

In 1672 Peter Stuyvesant died, at the age of eighty, and was buried in the little chapel which he had built upon his farm.

FOR FURTHER READING:

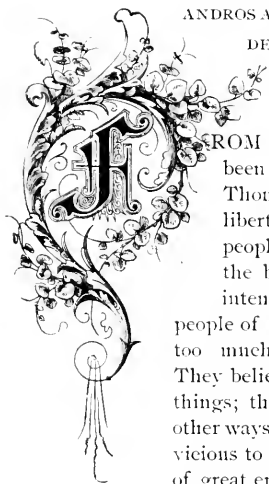
HISTORY—Whitehead's "New Jersey."

FICTION—Paulding's "Dutchman's Fireside" and "Book of St. Nicholas."

CHAPTER XXVII.

Our Country, Right or Wrong.

POLITICAL POLICY OF MASSACHUSETTS—EFFORTS OF ENGLAND TO
RECOVER THE CHARTER—EDWARD RANDOLPH—COIN OF THE
COLONY—SIR EDMUND ANDROS—THE EPISODE OF
THE CONNECTICUT CHARTER—ARREST OF
ANDROS AND ELECTION OF PHIPS—
DEATH OF PHIPS.



FROM the first, Massachusetts, as a colony, had been ambitious for political independence. Though the commonwealth had in it little liberty, it was in many respects excellent. The people were determined, and determination is the best corner-stone of government. No good intentions can make up for weakness. If the people of Massachusetts erred, it was upon the side of too much sternness and inflexibility of purpose. They believed that there was a right way of doing things; that their way was the right way, and all other ways were wrong. Liberty of conscience seemed vicious to them—for was not the conscience capable of great error? But being so determined in religious matters, made them equally so in political affairs, and no wheedling diplomacy or threatenings of the government of England could make them lose sight of their charter, which they loved as dearly as their own lives, and which they protected with no little danger to themselves. Charles I had insinuated that they were governing without authority, and in many different ways had tried to get them to return their charter to England. His letters were passed over without replies from the colonial government. To refuse directly, would have been treason. To consent, would have been loss of liberty. To keep silent, was to continue a delay which might end in victory for them.

At this time the King had prohibited the Puritans from leaving England for Massachusetts, and on several occasions had made companies of them disembark from the ships on which they had taken passage. Two of the men who took passage for Massachusetts among the company of Puritans were Cromwell and John Hampden. Had they been allowed to get away, the most attractive of the Stuarts might have kept his head upon his shoulders. After the King was dead and the Long Parliament was in session, the charter was again threatened, but the temporizing policy of the colonists again stood them in good stead. They wrote a letter to Cromwell which touched that religious strain he held in common with the Puritans of Massachusetts, and won his valuable friendship. At one time he was seized with an idea of removing the Massachusetts people to the Island of Jamaica, that they might undertake the conversion of the Catholics about there, but the general court pointed out the bad economy of such a step, and the matter was dropped. When Charles II was restored to the throne, the two regicides, Whalley and Goff, fled to America. Massachusetts, in sympathy, of course, with the Protestant revolution, protected these men, and when a royal order was sent for their surrender, succeeded in helping them to escape. But at the next general court a letter was given to Charles II which protested the loyalty of the colony, and asked for the protection of their government. The King sent a reply, but demanded again the surrender of the regicides. The Massachusetts people met this with their usual irritating silence, and the King's feeling toward them ceased to be amiable.

In May, 1661, two men were sent to investigate the humor of the colony and see why it refused to obey the King and return the charter. The people explained as well as they could that it was the foundation of their colony and their protection; that they were loyal to the home government, and desired a royal confirmation of the charter. It was granted, but with conditions which the colonists deeply resented. Every ordinance passed during the rule of Cromwell was to be pronounced invalid. Members of the Church of England should be free to worship as they chose, and all should have the right of suffrage, without regard to their religious opinions. As none but the Puritans, who worship after the Congregational method, were allowed to vote, this was naturally very displeasing to the Massachusetts people.

A few years later the royal commissioners, under Nicolls, came to secure the conquest of New Netherland, and incidentally to enforce the obedience of the Massachusetts colony to the King. This commis-

sion returned to England after the surrender of New Amsterdam. There had been a thorough attempt on the part of this commission to enforce the authority of the King, but the general court was quite as firm. Its conscience would not allow it, it said, in Puritanic phrase, to swear allegiance to the King except under the protection of the charter. The commissioners returned to England baffled. Then came the great plague of London, and after that the historic fire. The colony was prompt to send all the assistance it could. Its generosity was remarkable, considering its size. By this time New Hampshire and Maine were included in the government of Massachusetts, and the spars sent to England from Maine forests were invaluable to an army engaged in naval warfare, as the English were with the Dutch at this time.

These evidences of loyalty might have conciliated the home government had not the dissatisfaction felt toward the colonies been kept alive by Edward Randolph, a man who had been sent to settle the question of the New Hampshire government previous to its incorporation with Massachusetts. This man was heartily hated in Massachusetts. He was far too good a servant of the King, and carried stories to him which greatly damaged the colony in the royal ears. Especially did he complain that they broke the navigation laws, which, under heavy taxations, confined and limited the trade of the colony. They admitted that they did so, but said it was necessary to their prosperity. They offered, however, to cover the matter by an act of their own. Randolph would have none of this. He asked the general court to help him, but they followed their usual policy by paying no attention. Even the Governor seems to have kept a discreet silence.

Another charge brought against them was that they coined their own money, which none but the King had a right to do. One clever gentleman who had visited New England was sent for by the King that he might learn something about the matter. This man, whose name was Thomas Temple, showed the King some of the colony coins. They were of the old pine-tree variety. The King looked at them suspiciously, but Sir Thomas, being something of a courtier, told the King that the pine tree upon them was a royal oak; that the Massachusetts people did not dare to put the King's name upon their coin, and had, therefore, put on the oak, which, as everyone knew, had preserved the King's life. This money had followed wampum, the exchange of the Indians. At one time early in the history of Massachusetts musket bullets had been used in the place of money. There was a very large coinage of

the pine-tree money, and it was used for a long time. At last, in 1681, came another letter from the King, asking that deputies should be sent to him to tender the submission of the colonies. Massachusetts dared delay no longer, and sent two men to England, armed with a letter of such firm pride that the King grew angry, and issued a writ against the colony, demanding to show by what warrant it held its charter.

When Charles II died and James, his brother, became King of England, he put Sir Edmund Andros over all of New England. He was a proud Englishman of high birth, one of the old-time loyalists, who thought obedience to the King a much greater thing than the liberty of a people. His manner of living was very disagreeable to the Puritans. He gave large drinking parties and made much display of his wealth and authority, while it was their habit to live quietly.

By this time many of the men of Boston were rich. They were naturally proud of all that they had done and the respect in which they were held, but their manners were without show. The loss of the charter which they so loved, the dissolving of the general court, and the setting up of an arrogant and selfish Governor over them, filled them with an angry discontent. Randolph, whom they so hated, was made licenser of the press, and other men as overbearing and disagreeable were put in office. No respect was shown for Puritan principles, and in the Old South Meeting-House, dedicated to Puritan worship, Governor Andros insisted upon holding Episcopalian service. He levied taxes pretty much to please himself, and was filled with great indignation when the people protested. He even made the land-owners give up their titles to him for examination, and said that the deeds from the Indians were not worth the scratch of a bear's paw. He made conditions, however, by which these titles could become legal; but the people would not accept them, since it was a matter of conscience to them not to give approval to his rule. In New Hampshire, Andros had but little trouble. In Maine, he had succeeded in ousting the Baron Vincent de Chastine, Lieutenant of the French government of Acadia.

His next work was to deprive Connecticut of its charter. In vain did the people protest. They set forth all they had suffered in subduing the soil and overcoming the Indians, and defended their claims to independence, but the plea had no effect. Andros insisted upon having the charter. The distressed Connecticut magistrates sat about the table of the little council chamber listening with anxiety to the royal governor. They talked about the matter all the afternoon and until

evening had deepened and the candles were lit. Outside of the building crowds of excited citizens gathered. Andros made a final demand for the charter. It was no gust of wind that blew out the candle. In the darkness, the charter disappeared. The crowd outside dispersed. They were contented. The Governor, baffled and furious, entered an account of the meeting upon the State records, and wrote "finis" at the end. No one in Connecticut appeared to know where the charter was. It was snugly hidden in a great oak tree on the grounds of Samuel Wallace, one of the magistrates. But Connecticut had lost its individuality. It was now a part of the royal province, and in a little while New York and New Jersey were also a part of New England, under Andros.

But his authority was almost at an end. The pride of the people could stand no more, and when they heard that William of Orange had landed in England and the throne of King James was tottering, they wrote and read to the citizens of Boston a declaration of their independence from royal rule. This was read from the balcony of the town-house, on which were gathered the most prominent men of Boston. On Beacon Hill, tar barrels were blazing. All through the streets the boys were beating drums. Flags flew bravely over the city. The declaration declared that it rejoiced that the Prince of Orange was upon the throne of England and that the power of the Stuarts had been overthrown. The royal servants were arrested and thrown into jail, Andros among them. Simon Bradstreet was made president. He was eighty-seven years of age, but he was strong with the determination of the Puritans.

The Massachusetts deputies, who visited the Prince of Orange, had permission to use their old charter until a new one could be made. This hardly satisfied the people, but they were better contented when Sir William Phips was made Governor of New England. Phips had been born on the Kennebec, in Maine, and was therefore welcomed by the colonists. He had been a sheep-tender on the Maine hills, and had worked as a carpenter in the great Maine shipping yards. He married a Boston widow who had money enough to start him in business. Having a romantic character, he built him a ship for the purpose of dragging lost Spanish treasures from the sea. He went to the West Indies and hunted about for the sunken Spanish galleys which had lain there for years. One of these he found, but did not get a large amount of spoils, and was anxious to search for another which he thought more valuable. He soon interested the King of England in his project, and

was given a man-of-war, well fitted in all respects. For two years he searched without effect, having many odd experiences, and successfully stopping a mutiny of his sailors.

In spite of his failure to secure the Spanish treasure, he had so much determination and eloquence that he was equipped for a second voyage. This time he found the ship, richly laden with treasure. He received a good share of the bullion, coin and plate, and was given a cup, valued at one thousand pounds, by the Duke of Albemarle, who had sent out the expedition.

The King knighted him, and he returned to New England, wealthy and famous. It was this man who was appointed Governor of New England. It was during Phips' administration that a fleet was sent northward for the purpose of subduing Canada. The idea was to take Quebec and Montreal. The New England soldiers fared badly. They sailed along the coast and up the St. Lawrence in so lazy a way that Frontenac had time to prepare for defence. Phips was not a soldier, and Wallace, who was with him, was a coward. The combination was fatal. They made continual mistakes, and at last, with many men lost and many more sick, were obliged to turn their ships toward Boston. One of the ships was never heard of, one of them burned, and a third was wrecked.

The expense of the expedition had been so great as to bankrupt the treasury, and it was necessary to issue paper bonds. These soon fell in value thirty-three per cent., and Phips redeemed them from the soldiers, to whom they had been paid, with money from his own private fortune. He also made an expedition to Maine, against the Indians, with but small results. His impulsiveness and generosity was not sustained by wisdom or quiet determination. Though a picturesque and attractive man, he did not make a good Governor, and the vexations of his office did not improve his temper, which was always hot. At length he was ordered to England to answer certain charges against him, and in London, in 1694, he died of a fever. He was one of the most adventurous and romantic of all the men who at that time distinguished American history.

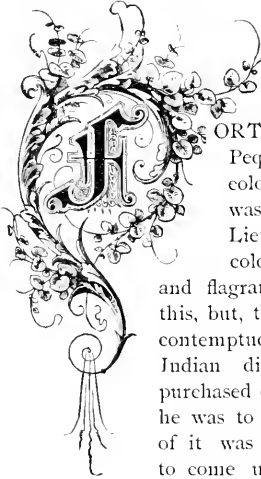
FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Trumbull's "Connecticut."
FICTION—W. Seaton's "Romance of the Charter Oak."
R. Dawes' "Nix's Mate."
E. Charles' "On Both Sides of the Sea."

CHAPTER XXVIII.

Days of Dread.

KING PHILIP'S WAR—FIGHT AT BROOKFIELD—FIGHT AT HADLEY—
FIGHT AT DEERFIELD.



FORTY years after the destruction of the Pequots, there broke over the New England colonies another wave of Indian war. Philip was in England, and William Stoughton, the Lieutenant Governor, was attending to the colonial affairs. There had been no direct and flagrant insult to the Indians which prompted this, but, through all the long years, there had been a contemptuous treatment of them. For one thing, the Indian did not understand that when land was purchased of him for a few blankets, or scissors, that he was to yield it up forever. His understanding of it was that he gave the white man permission to come upon it; but when the white man came and steadily drove him out, when his friends were treacherously murdered, or sold to slavery, he perceived too late what was intended. The Narragansetts had much reason to hate the Englishmen. They had never forgotten the treacherous murdering of their young and beloved chief, Miantonomo. He had been executed, without cause, by the Massachusetts commissioners, away back in 1643, more to please Uncas, the Mohican chief, who was the friend of the whites, than for any offence which he had committed. At the present time, the son of Miantonomo was reigning over the Narragansetts, and he allied himself to Philip, the second son of Massasoit, the sachem of the Wampanoags. Massasoit, it will be remembered, had been a good friend of the pilgrims of Plymouth at the time when they needed friends. In 1660 he died, leaving two sons, to whom he had given English names, Alexander and Philip. A year after Massasoit's death, the elder o

these brothers, Alexander, was carried as a prisoner to Plymouth, because he was suspected of joining the Narragansetts for the purpose of moving against the English; but the chief died before they reached Plymouth. His wife, who was a queen among the Indians, believed that they had poisoned Alexander. When, fourteen years later, she heard that her brother-in-law, Philip, was going to make an effort to wipe out the bitter injustice and humiliation which had come to the Indians in all those trying years, she took her three hundred warriors and joined him. It was a fatal move for her. Within a year all but twenty-six of her braves were killed, and the young queen, trying to swim the river, was drowned. When the Englishmen found her body washed ashore, they cut her head from her comely shoulders, and set it up where her disheartened warriors could see it, and around it the broken-hearted braves set up a most dismal wailing.

Philip, himself, was a man with many friends. The natural vigor and determination of his character, his frank and convincing way of speaking, his upright carriage, and penetrating eye, forced the admiration of all. He had tried to treat the white man with fairness; had answered to his many unjust suspicions with dignity and calmness, but in return had received many wounds which rankled. He was made to deliver up all the English arms which his tribe possessed. This humiliated him and his tribe deeply. Another incident irritated him also. One of the Indians whom Eliot had converted, warned the people at Plymouth that there was a growing anger among the Indians, and danger that they might soon break into war. The Indians probably learned of the story which the man had told, for he was found murdered and thrust into the ice of the river. Three Indians were accused of the deed, and a trial by jury was held, in which six white men and six Indians were impaneled. The accused Indians were executed. Philip hastened preparations for war. On a fair June day in 1675, the people of Swansea appointed a day of prayer and fasting that they might be spared from the horrors of war. Going home from church, a man was killed by an Indian in ambush. Several were wounded, and two who hastened for a surgeon were killed. Over by the garrison six more men were killed. A number of houses and barns were burned. This was the beginning of the war. It was the torch, so to speak, which called together the bands of savages. All through the remote settlements many houses were burned and much property destroyed. Cattle were driven away, and frequently farmers were murdered. Eighteen houses were destroyed in Providence. Through

the months of July and August these crimes went steadily on. In August the general court sent a number of men to hold a peace conference with some Indians at Brookfield. The Indians did not appear there as they had promised to do, and Captain Wheeler, with twenty men, went to look for them. The Indians had prepared an ambush for them, and eight of the twenty Englishmen were killed. The captain and many others were wounded. They hurried to Brookfield to give the alarm to the people. Pell-mell the men, women and children rushed into the strong house in the settlement. Three hundred savages, as mad as wolves at the taste of blood, thronged into the village. They burned every house except the one where the frightened people were gathered.

For two days and nights the men in that log cabin held out. The Indians had ammunition and guns, and kept up the fight from all sides. At night they would crawl along the ground and build fires against the walls of the building. They tied fire-brands to poles and tried to thrust them through the cracks in the logs, and attached burning stuff to their arrows. But the fires were put out by the besieged. Even when burning sulphur was poured upon the roof, it was extinguished. The white men had become as cunning as the savages. They could fight them upon their own ground. The third morning came, and with it despair. The Englishmen felt they could not hold out much longer.

The Indians prepared a terrible machine. It was a cart piled high with hay and hemp, and blazing fiercely. This was pushed up against the building. It seemed as if there could be no escape. Either the brave men must see their wives and children burn there in the fire, or what was worse, let them suffer the horrors of Indian captivity. Praying and weeping, the women prepared to take their children in their arms and venture out; but at that moment a cloud overspread the sky. There was a clap of thunder and a sudden down-pour of summer rain. The fire was extinguished. So wet did the building get that there was no longer any chance of burning it. The besieged held out during the afternoon, and before evening, Major Simon Willard, of Boston, with fifty or sixty men, dashed into the town and routed the Indians, eighty of whom were killed or wounded.

The war spread steadily. Philip's influence was great. He went from tribe to tribe, haranguing, encouraging and threatening. Those he could not win to his side in any other way he bought up with wampum and gifts. No white man felt safe at this time. Every house and every church was an arsenal in which ammunition was stored.

Men carried their arms everywhere, to church, to dinner and to bed. Flint-locks were already known in America, although they were not yet in use in England.

The stories which could be told of this time would fill volumes, so many were hurried into captivity, so many tortured and mutilated. One of the fiercest fights was at Hadley, on the Connecticut, three or four weeks after the Brookfield fight. Hadley was a place for military supplies and had a garrison. Most of the soldiers were away at the time, and as at Swansea, the people were holding a feast day. Some one brought the alarm that the Indians were coming. Men had their arms at hand, and gathered about the door, while the women and children crowded into the corners of the building. The meeting-house was not a strong structure, and the Indians made an unusually savage onslaught. Resistance looked almost useless. The men were unnerved with fear. As the Indians surged up, and the first men who ventured to the open door were met with well-directed arrows, they fell back with despair in their faces. Suddenly an old man stood among them. No one had seen him before. He was tall and soldierly, with masses of flowing grey hair about his shoulders. He drew his sword like one used to wars, and stepping out with intrepid bravery, led the colonists to an attack. No one asked who he was. They simply felt that God had sent a deliverer. The Indians were chased to the woods, into whose murky depths they disappeared, and the colonists looked about for their leader, but he was gone. Not till long after did they know that it was Colonel Goff, the regicide, who was then in hiding at Hadley, and on whose head the King of England had fixed a price. No soldier with his experience could see a crowd of brave men perish for the want of a leader.

On the very same day Deerfield was attacked, and here, later in the month, the people were fired upon as they were going to the meeting-house. The block-house at Northfield was besieged, and a number of persons killed.

Near Hadley a company of young men, eighty in number, were sent out to complete the threshing and load the wagons with grain. They were under the command of Captain Lathrop. In these days a soldier was at the head of every venture. Returning in the middle of the month to Hadley, the company stopped in a large grove beside a brook, and the men broke their ranks and rested themselves in a pleasant spot. Suddenly, with no warning, seven hundred savages were upon them, and only seven of the men escaped. This was how

Bloody Brook got its name. Captain Mosley, who had been left behind to protect Deerfield, heard the firing, and hurried to the spot with one hundred and sixty men, part of whom were Mohegans. The attacking Indians were driven off.

The English, realizing that there was no prospect of peace, decided that it was best to begin a systematic warfare. Soldiers were called for. Massachusetts gave five hundred and twenty men, Connecticut three hundred, and Plymouth one hundred and fifty-nine. The Mohegan Indians gave one hundred and fifty warriors. The idea was to march under Governor Winslow, of Plymouth, to the country of the Narragansetts, in Rhode Island. There they had a strong fort, occupying six acres of dry ground. About it was a swamp, and beyond this a high palisade, protected by a *chevaux-de-frise*. There was a deep snow on the ground by this time, for it was now December. To reach the entrance of the fort, it was necessary to get over a log as high as a man's breast. Under a fire from the Indians, four Massachusetts captains were killed, and three of the Connecticut leaders. But Captain Benjamin Church, putting those firm lips of his together, marched around to the rear, and entered there, carrying three bullets in him, but still in fighting condition. The savages were driven out into the swamp and beyond that, leaving seven hundred dead behind them. Three hundred of their wounded men died later. A great many of the old and feeble were burned in the wigwams which the Englishmen were foolish enough to fire, within the fort. The colonists also lost heavily.

In spite of this terrible battle, Philip was determined not to yield. He felt, no doubt, that it was the turning point in his countrymen's history. If they lost their independence now, it would never be regained, but if they could succeed in exterminating the hated English, all might be as before. Solitude would be theirs again, and liberty their own. They could paddle their canoes at peace upon the wide rivers. The deer would return to the forest. The clam banks upon the coast would be unmolested. They would no longer be the victims of the white man's pride and cupidity. In February, Lancaster was attacked, but after that, for a month or two, affairs were quiet, and the colonists were rarely disturbed. In May, a large party of Indians gathered on the desolated fields by Deerfield, and began planting them. This news was brought to Hatfield, and Captain Turner rode twenty miles, with one hundred men at his back, reaching the Indians in the night. The roar of the fall on the river kept the horses' hoofs from being heard. Leaving the horses in the ravine, the soldiers fell upon

the Indians just at day-break. The Indians, dazed with sleep and entirely unprepared for the attack, could not do themselves justice. One hundred and forty of them took to their canoes, but, in the panic, went over the falls and perished. Many were shot, and others took refuge in the rocks, or were put to the sword. Turner lost but one man; the Indians lost three hundred. But another large party of Indians, not far distant, heard the fight, and soon overtook Turner and his men. The brave captain was killed, with many of his followers, but most of them reached Hatfield safely.

Philip had a fishery near the falls, from which he had intended to provide his men for the winter, and the breaking up of this greatly disturbed him. He made an attack upon Hatfield, but was defeated, and soon after he led seven hundred Indians against Hadley again, but many of them were slain and they were obliged to hastily retreat. Then he moved farther south. Town after town was sacked and burned. Now he was in Rhode Island, now in Connecticut, and now in Massachusetts. In these days every man became a fighter. Even the boys were enemies to be dreaded, and on more than one occasion whole families had been saved, in the absence of men, by the pluck and readiness of mere urchins. It was a great blow to the Indians when Nanunteoos, the proud and revengeful son of Miantonomo, was taken captive. He was executed, of course, but was glad to die, so he said.

All through the spring and summer of 1676 the colonies were in terrible fear. When Sudbury was attacked and partly burned, Captain Wadsworth, hurrying to the relief, was caught in ambush and killed, with sixty of his men. Captain Pierce was surprised, and his company of fifty Englishmen massacred. Only one of them escaped. Major Talcott, with a force of three hundred mounted men, surrounded a larger body of Narragansetts in a swamp in Rhode Island. All of them were either killed in the assault or put to death afterward.

Philip was becoming discouraged. He saw that his men were breaking down under the strain. The white man had learned all his secrets. He understood the decoy, the night attack, and the stealthy waiting as well as the Indian, now, and to this he united greater endurance and courage in the face of heavy odds. Twice Philip had barely escaped capture. He had been obliged to disguise himself. At last, worn out and disheartened, he fled to his home on the isthmus of Mt. Hope. An Indian betrayed his whereabouts to Church. Church, whom Philip feared more than any other living man, started for the place at once. It was the middle of the night when he reached there.

Across a swamp, on a bit of upland, slept the great chief, with his Indians about him. The Englishmen sent a heavy fire into the camp. Philip sprang to his feet, gun in hand, and rushed forward. A minute later he was dead, with his face in the dark swamp water.

The Indians could do little more. Their great leader, whose eloquence was such an inspiration to them, whose courage was inexhaustible, and whose plans had been so daring and ingenious, was dead. The power of the Indians over all that section of the country was gone. Many rushed westward, and many, alas! served as slaves in the West Indies. Others sought the powerful friendship of the white men. All over New England there was mourning, for hardly a house had been left untouched by death.

FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Abbott's "History of King Philip."

FICTION—R. C. Sands' "Yamoyden."

Cooper's "The Wept of Wish-ton-wish."

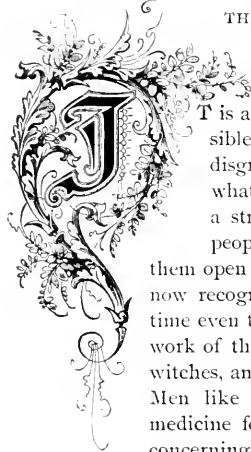
G. H. Hollister's "Mount Hope."

Pierce's "Narragansett Chief."

CHAPTER XXIX.

A Passing Madness.

HOW THE WITCH-CRAFT HALLUCINATION STARTED—SAMUEL PARRIS
AND HIS WITCH-CRAFT LIBRARY—THE TRIAL AND DEATH
OF GILES COREY AND OTHER VICTIMS OF
THIS HALLUCINATION.



It is a pity that children should have been responsible for some of the most dreadful crimes which disgraced New England. It was they who started what is known as the witch-craft delusion. It was a strange time. In Europe, as in America, the people were morbid. A series of misfortunes made them open to this disease of the mind, which physicians now recognize as a sort of hysteria, but which at that time even the wisest and best of men supposed to be the work of the devil. Every one believed that there were witches, and the Bible said that witches should be hung. Men like Bacon went to the trouble of inventing a medicine for witches' ointment. Statesmen made laws concerning it. Ministers preached about it from the pulpit. To tell hideous stories of bewitched people about the winter fireside was one of the favorite amusements. Every one who wore scarlet, or who chanced to be peculiar, was sure to be thought a witch. This fearful disease had raged in Europe for a good many years before it reached the new world. So extensive had it become that a great many books had been written on the subject, and these books had been brought in considerable numbers to America. Samuel Parris, a man who had been a merchant in Barbadoes, but who had become a minister upon moving to Salem, had a number of these books in his library. In a town where books were comparatively few, they were naturally much borrowed and read, and appealed, as the horrible and mysterious always does, to the imagination of the people in general, and to children in

particular. In Parris' family also was Tituba, an old slave, half negro and half Indian. She knew all the ways of witch-craft, and it was supposed that she could conjure up spirits with her black, bony hands, or, if she chose, ride through midnight storms, safely seated on a broomstick. Not only has she figured in history, but in fiction and poetry, and all who know anything about those dreadful days know about Tituba and John Indian, her husband. Tituba had a habit of secretly gathering the children of the Parris and neighboring families into the kitchen, and there, by the flickering light of the fire, when the house was still and the old people away, she taught them all the dark secrets of her imaginary art, and instructed them in the way the bewitched children acted, telling them about the little Goodwin girl whom Cotton Mather had taken to live with him because she was bewitched. He wished to have her near him that he might study the actions of Satan in her, and it was through watching her that he came to believe in witch-craft, and did so much harm by advocating it. The little Goodwin girl had accused a quiet Irish washer-woman of having bewitched her. Whenever the woman came near, she fell into spasms and sank upon the ground. Three other children did as they saw her do, and the poor washer-woman was hanged. Tituba told these stories with delight, and the company of little girls practiced the actions of the bewitched. The children imagined such dreadful things that at last they were really no longer able to control themselves, but did really suffer almost as much as they had at first pretended to. So dreadfully did they act that doctors were called to visit them. They immediately said they were bewitched. The next thing then was to find the witches. The Reverend Parris, believing as he did in the existence of such a thing, was not illy pleased to have it come within his reach. If he really did not encourage the children in the matter, he at least influenced them to declare against his enemies. The first person they cried out against was Sarah Goodwin. She was accused of pinching them, and running pins and needles into them. The justices tried her, and sent her to prison. Many more were sent after her. Then came the charge against Giles Corey, a staunch old farmer, who was foolish enough to believe in witch-craft. The children cried out that he tormented them, and they fell into a strange illness, so real that the people had no choice but to believe in their sufferings. Corey was pressed to death and treated with great contempt in every way. The acquisitions came faster and faster. A court of seven judges was appointed to decide upon the many cases brought before them. Among the children the epidemic spread. So

strong a hold did it have on them, that they actually declined until they were little more than skin and bones. A sort of second sight, or clairvoyancy, mingled with their hysteria, and the actual things which they foretold, or, being at a distance, correctly related, helped to confirm the popular belief. It got dangerous for one to have the least peculiarity. Any spot on the body—a mole or mark—was sufficient to convict one of being a witch. Gentle Rebecca Nourse, a farmer's wife, living in her own house and quietly tending her children, her house and her cows, was accused of being one of these baleful creatures, and was taken from her home, executed and thrown into the pit which was set apart for the witches, Christian burial not being allowed them. Here, at midnight, when no one was watching, came her little children and her husband to search for her poor body and give it a more gentle burial.

Longfellow writes of Bridget Bishop, a jolly woman, fond of jests and bright dresses, who was condemned as much for wearing a scarlet petticoat as for anything else. Everyone who had an enemy saw a quick way of taking revenge upon him, by accusing him of being a party to the strange wickedness. The prison became crowded. As for the children, they seemed to have found themselves the most important and dreaded personages in the community. They grew very clever at imitating the people whom they accused of bewitching them, and children with soft voices acquired the power of talking like a man in deep, bass tones. It was not all imagination. It became insanity. One child, more conscientious than the rest, realized after a time that she did not feel all that she said she felt. She confessed, and accused the other children of deceit. The children promptly denounced her as a witch. But the matter had aroused the suspicions of the people. The wiser of them began to think it was a plot, and when at length Mrs. Hale, a woman of great beauty of character and of high station, was accused, the sympathy of the people was with her. Captain John Alden, a man of high character and good family, was accused. He made a sensible defence, which had no effect upon the justices, but at length he escaped. At last the children even dared to accuse the Governor's wife, and when they came to imitating some members of the Mather family, even Cotton Mather, the Methodist divine, concluded there must be a mistake somewhere. The matter ended almost as suddenly as it had begun. Governor Phips released one hundred and fifty persons from the jail. Several hundred more had, at one time and another, been imprisoned there, but only twenty were killed—not counting the two poor dogs which were formally executed for being familiars of witches.

For one especial cruelty was Parris responsible. He hated, with all the narrowness of a minister of the time, the Reverend Stephen Burroughs, who seems to have had a belief which did not exactly agree with that accepted as orthodox by the Salem people. Parris had him driven out of the colony, and he took refuge with his family in Maine. At the time of the witch-craft excitement Parris succeeded in getting him accused and having him brought away down to Salem to be tried. An elder and two constables were sent to bring him, as Parris had chosen to give him the reputation of a dangerous man. He went with them cheerfully enough, having no thought that the matter was so serious. He was a remarkable man, of much animal magnetism, with a very commanding and penetrating eye, and all who came near him felt his influence. It was this power, added to his eloquence, which had made Parris jealous, and indeed had laid him open to suspicion, for it was not safe in those days to know very much. He understood wood-craft as an Indian does, and being a man remarkably strong and unusually clever, had done many things which his more stupid associates could not understand. Having a reputation of this sort, the terrified constables and the elder who were sent after him were distracted when he insisted upon leading them at night through a pathless forest, the way which he knew as well as his own garden. A terrible storm, with most violent lightning, broke over them, frightening the horses, breaking the trees, and driving the men half mad with terror. To this day the spot in New Hampshire is called Witches' Trot. Once at Salem, all was over with him. He never went back to his wife and children beyond the forest. This dreadful chapter of Massachusetts history was very short. It was confined to the year 1692. In no time was it so sharp as it had been in the Old World, but it was bad enough, and made a great blot of ignorance and superstition on the fair page of native history. In 1720 a second attempt was made to stir up this old frenzy, but civilization had gone too far. The people would have none of it.

FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Upham's "History of Witch-craft."

FICTION—J. Neal's "Rachel Dyer."

POETRY—Longfellow's "Giles Corey."

Whittier's "Witch of Wenham."

Whittier's "Mabel Martin."

Whittier's "Changeling."

Whittier's "Wreck of Rivermouth."

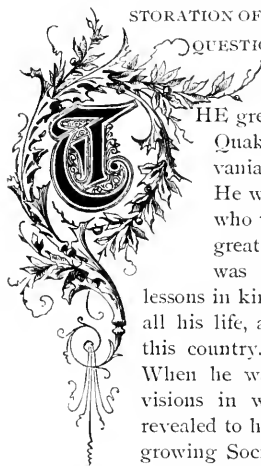


BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

CHAPTER XXX.

A Gentleman.

WILLIAM PENN—THE SETTLEMENT OF PENNSYLVANIA—REMARKABLE
GROWTH OF THE COLONY—CHANGE OF GOVERNMENT—RE-
STORATION OF PENN—HIS DEATH—THE SLAVERY
QUESTION—BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.



THE great State of Pennsylvania was settled by the Quakers, or Friends. In speaking of Pennsylvania, it is necessary to speak of William Penn. He was the son of a noted admiral of England, who was not only a man of much intellect, but of great humor and affability as well. His mother was an unusual woman also, and gave her son lessons in kindness and amiability which influenced him all his life, and had no little effect upon the history of this country. From his earliest years he was unusual. When he was a school-boy of eleven, he had strange visions in which the works and glory of God were revealed to him. It was by such things as this that the growing Society of Friends was distinguished. But at this time, Penn knew nothing of the Friends nor the frequency of these visions in England. Yet Penn was no dreamer; he was a gay, active boy, very strong of arm, capable of swift running, and fond of that jollity which forms so large a part of the schoolboy's life. In the course of time, a great preacher of the Society of Friends came to Oxford. Young Penn became a willing and enthusiastic convert.

A short time after this, it was ordered that the surplice should be worn by the Oxford students. Penn could not permit this evidence of Episcopal pride to pass unchallenged. He and some of his friends tore the detested garments over the students' heads. He was expelled from school and banished from home. The tears of his mother, however, softened the heart of the proud admiral, who forgave his son and

sent him to Paris, in the hope that its allurements might win him from his fantastic ideas; and for a time they did, and he was as gay and heedless as any of the youths who lounged about Paris. He was bright and intelligent, and charmed London society with his graceful manner and witty speech; but it was only a short time that he gave himself up to this light manner of living. Again he was drawn to the meetings of the Friends, and after this, sincerely devoted his life to their service. At one time he was fined for attending their meetings; at another he was thrown into the Tower for writing a book, setting forth their views, but while there, he continued to write as his conscience prompted him. It was seven months before he was released. Soon after this, his father died, reconciled to his son's strange beliefs, and leaving him a large property, which Penn spent for the most part in the cause of the Friends.

It was Penn's ambition to start a colony in the New World; already he had been interested in some settlements there. New Jersey, it will be remembered, had been granted to Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret, but the people of New Jersey protested against their ruling, which was overbearing and unfair. There had been an insurrection; two colonies had been made—East and West New Jersey—and Berkeley had sold his share to a company of Quakers. William Penn was one of this company. A few years later, Sir George Carteret died, and his rights in East New Jersey were sold to twelve Quakers, and in this purchase William Penn had a share. But here there were so many Swedes, Dutch and Scotch, that no effort was made to make the colonies distinctly Quaker. Over these, Andros, the royal Governor, ruled. Penn was anxious, as has been said, to make a settlement of his own, and after his father died, he told the King, who was seriously in arrears with the admiral's pay, that he would liquidate this debt if he would give him a grant of territory in America. Penn's courtly air and handsome face and form, and his experience in diplomatic matters, stood him in very good stead. In 1680, he obtained a grant from Charles II, including forty thousand square miles of territory between Maryland and New York. To this the King gave the name of Pennsylvania. So well known was he in Europe, not only as the son of the distinguished admiral, but as a man of great originality and courage, that the sturdy, industrious people of Germany, as well as those of his own country, were anxious to follow him. He did not, like George Fox, neglect everything æsthetic, and dress himself in a not very clean suit of leather, and though he wore the garb of the Friends, he saw to it

that the fabric was good and the fit excellent. Dress and address are the two first things which one notices in a stranger. William Penn was too much of a statesman not to appreciate this. He knew that one could afford to be eccentric, but not disagreeable. It is not strange, however, that he was popular.

His principles of government were of a broad nature. There was to be perfect liberty of conscience and political freedom for all—even the Indians. Only murder and treason were to be punished by death. Penn would not even have had *these* laws had he chosen himself, and while he lived, no gallows was ever erected in the province. He believed that a prison should be a place of reform. No oath was necessary to the man of good conscience. All pleasures which had in them any possibility of evil, such as cock-fighting, bull-baiting, card-playing and theatre-going, were forbidden. His scheme of government included one act which might be well imitated now—lying was punished as a crime. There was to be a trial by jury for all cases of injury, and Indians were to be among the jury, whenever Indian rights were in question. A German company bought fifteen thousand acres from Penn, and hastened to emigrate thither in 1681. It was in 1682 before Penn and his friends set sail. Penn had an audience of the King, at which he astonished his Majesty by telling him that England had no right to molest the savages upon their own soil. "What," cried the King, "have I not the right of discovery?" "Just suppose," said Penn, in his calm way, "that a canoe full of savages should by some accident discover Great Britain; would you vacate, or sell?" When Penn reached New Castle, on the 27th of October, the Dutch and Swedes gave him a very cordial welcome. He naturalized all the inhabitants of the province, and then hastened up the river to Upland, which is now Chester, where he met the delegates who had already been selected by his commissioners. This was the first assembly. Everyone caught the infection of his sincerity and gentleness, and the arrangements made there by the assembly were remarkable for their justice and liberality.

Penn was delighted with the new country. The abundance of natural fruits and berries, the beauty of the woods and hills, and the clearness of the river, charmed him. He went up the river himself, looking for a suitable site for the prospective city, and decided upon the sweeping peninsula around which the Delaware flows. This he named Philadelphia, that all might know the sentiment which prompted its founding. Penn called it his "holy experiment." He laid out the

city himself, upon a great scale of squares; all of the avenues to be lined with trees, and houses to be set so that they might be surrounded with gardens. In the first year twenty-three ships filled with colonists came to Penn's province.

The Indians, for the first time, were treated with absolute equality; there was not a touch of the arrogance of the Spaniard, the sternness of the Puritans, the commercial greed of the Dutch, or the bewildering mysticism of the French Jesuits. Penn was simple and direct. He ate with the Indians, out-ran them in jocular contests, and tried leaping matches with the sprightly young braves. Under the famous elm tree at Shackamaxon, the old resort for Indian councils, he held a treaty with the Indians. He and his followers wore no arms, and Penn was distinguished from his followers only by a sash of blue silk netting, falling like a soldier's scarf across his shoulders. The sachem of the Indians carried in his hand a chaplet, and when he donned this, the savages flung their arms to the ground, in token that the treaties were inviolable. The address which he made to the Indians won their hearts completely, and in a short time he had learned their language, and no longer had need of an interpreter. This increased his popularity among them. The driving bargains of his officers in after years were never laid to his charge.

Very early in its history, Pennsylvania had a school. Enoch Flower was the teacher's name, and for four shillings a quarter he taught the boys and girls of Philadelphia to write, and for six shillings, to read. He would take boarding-scholars, giving them "diet, lodging, washing and schooling for ten pounds the year." Nor was it long before a printing press was set up. Penn had a friend, James Claypool, who was quite an eminent scholar, and who may have inspired these movements to an extent. Penn built him a mansion, called "Pennsbury Manor," at Bristol, on the Delaware river. Here he lived happily for two years, when he found it necessary to go to England, to answer some of the charges which his envious enemies had brought against him. He remained in England fifteen years, during which time affairs did not run as quietly in the colony as might have been desired. There were religious quarrels and political quarrels, until the colonies were so misrepresented in England that the government was taken away from Penn and given to a royal commissioner. In 1694, however, William and Mary restored the province to Penn's absolute government—no one had ever questioned his proprietorship—and in 1699 Penn himself came from England, not a little weary of courts and the friction of cosmo-

politan life, intending to pass the remainder of his years in his beautiful home on the Delaware, surrounded by those who knew and appreciated his noble qualities of heart and mind.

Not a little astonished was Penn when he saw Philadelphia, then a little more than eighteen years old. Doubtless he had carried in his mind's eye a picture of the colony as he left it, largely made up of rude huts, with chimneys of mud. When, therefore, he saw the noble city of over two thousand houses, most of which were built of brick, in that chaste, placid architecture of the Friends, and when he saw the wharfs and viaducts with their busy trade, he must have received quite a shock, in his sudden realization of the growth and success of his "holy experiment." He took for his own residence the slate-roofed house which stood in Second street, at the southeast corner of Norris' alley, until the year 1868, when it was torn down.

John Penn, always called "The American," to distinguish him from William Penn's other children, was born in this house, of Penn's second wife, Hannah Callowhill, a delicate, sweet woman, whom Penn dressed with much pride in silks and jewels in spite of the stern Quaker regulations in regard to costume. She preferred the country seat up the Delaware, and here Penn lived the greater part of his time, in something of that state in which he had been raised. The house stood upon a hill, and was approached by an avenue of poplars. On one side ran the river, with the bank terraced down to it. The lawns were as well kept as the greener ones of England, and the gardens were planted, not alone with trees indigenous to Pennsylvania, but with many others brought from Europe and the tropics. The "forest primeval" of native elms and oaks was undisturbed, and in this were no formal walks, but only winding, woodland roads, made by accident, rather than design.

Penn, like most Englishmen, was fond of good horses, and kept a stable of blood animals. Hannah Penn, tending her baby, or embroidering a screen in her boudoir, sat among satin-covered chairs, damask curtains, and silken blankets. The furniture was solid oak, spider-legged and carved. Rare china and plate filled the dresser. To all, there was an open house at Pennsbury Manor; every one was welcome, regardless of his or her standing, for Penn could never see a distinction of persons, and showed as much courtesy in the society of Indians as he did in his converse with kings. One entertainment which he gave to the Indians upon the lawn was so extensive that a hundred roasted turkeys were prepared as a part of the bill of fare. At a time when wild turkeys

frequently turned the scales at forty-six pounds, the banquet must have been ample. Penn accepted hospitality with as much grace as he gave it, and did not drop his courtly manners when he entered the wigwam of the Indian and ate hominy and acorns with him. There is a story told of his riding to the Derby meeting with little Rebecca Wood, a bare-legged country girl, sitting behind him on his well-groomed horse—himself immaculate, no doubt, as to attire. Those two years spent at Pennsbury Manor were, without question, the happiest of his life.

He was one of the first men in America to dimly perceive that an immorality lay in slavery. The truth did not come to him openly, for he and the rest of the Friends might well ask, "Did not the Bible sustain it?" Penn himself was an owner of slaves, but he felt in them, as in all the men he met, the common current of humanity, and in his will he gave freedom to his blacks. He tried to procure the passage of a law for the regulation of marriage of the negroes, but this law the assembly rejected. In 1701 he was obliged to leave the colony and return to England, and never again did he return to that peaceful spot upon the Delaware where the most placid years of his life had been spent. In England, he met with much trouble. At one time the charter of his province was threatened; again a lien was put on it through misrepresentation and fraud. He found himself heavily in debt, and was arrested and lodged in Fleet Prison for nine months. But even the evil reports which came from his beloved colony concerning the mismanagement of government were not so distressing to him as the folly and selfishness of his eldest son, William, whom he sent to America in hopes that he would find more wholesome companions than in profligate London. In Philadelphia, his debauchery and drunkenness were borne with much patience, because he was the son of their dear Governor, but he was finally arrested in a tavern brawl; the court brought an indictment against him. Governor Evans, who was then administering affairs in the province, was his boon friend, and had been in the same disgraceful brawl at which Penn was arrested, but neither Penn's name nor his powerful friends could move the Quakers when they had determined to do their duty by a sinner, and he left the province in disgrace, leaving a large company of disgusted creditors behind him.

So dissatisfied did the people become with the Governor that they actually defied his authority, and it was found judicious to dispose of him. Charles Cookin succeeded to the governorship in 1709, and ruled quietly, but without much distinction. His troubles were of an abstract

kind, relating entirely to religious obligations, subtle enough to have satisfied Puritan Salem. Following him came Sir William Keith, a governor of more sense, though of little more force. Philadelphia had but little sympathy with the warlike actions of the other colonists; she was at peace with the Indians herself, and did not take a personal interest in those numerous expeditions against the French and Indians which disturbed the northern and southern colonies and steadily sapped their strength.



WILLIAM PENN'S RESIDENCE.

As for Penn, he lived till 1718, and passed the last six years of his life in tranquility at Ruscombe, his English estate. Slowly and steadily his disease destroyed his powerful mind and wrecked his active body. In 1732 Thomas Penn, his second son by his second marriage, moved to Philadelphia. He was never popular, but his elder brother, who came two years later, had something of the magnetism, vivacity and cordiality which distinguished his father. This was under Patrick Gordon's administration, and a time of great prosperity. Though the colony was the youngest on the continent, it had more white inhabitants than all Virginia, Maryland and the two Carolinas. Philadelphia was

incomparably the finest city in America, and second in magnitude. Its trade was very extensive and its manufacturing excellent. When Gordon died, in 1736, George Thomas followed him, and quietly ruled for nine years.

Philadelphia, like Boston, had become the resort for enterprising boys. One of these boys was Benjamin Franklin, a rather comely printer's boy of seventeen, who quarreled with his elder brother, and made for the great "City of Brotherly Love." Everyone knows how he walked down the pavement, lonesome and hungry, eating his roll of bread; everyone knows of his unfortunate engagement with the printer, and how Governor Keith finally took him into his favor, or pretended to do so, and sent the eager lad to London. There Benjamin found out how little the Governor's promises were worth, and returned to Pennsylvania. After this he prospered, and in 1728 was one of the men who established the *Pennsylvania Gazette*, a paper which lived for 120 years. He had previously written for the *New England Current*, his brother's paper, and, indeed, it was on account of these articles on public affairs, that he had quarreled with his brother. Through his efforts, a library was started in Philadelphia in 1731. In 1741 he founded a philosophical society, and in 1749 a university in Pennsylvania. This was at a time of great national perplexity, which must be left for another chapter.

Collectors of rare American literature cherish a few copies of "Poor Richard's Almanac," which are still extant. This he issued for twenty-five years. It was a collection of saws and sayings which have passed into the phraseology of our country until they have become classic. The annual sale of this almanac was about ten thousand copies. These were handed down from family to family by country people, until they were worn to shreds. Franklin wrote many papers on political, financial and scientific subjects, and even now and then dipped a lighter pen in ballad-writing. He was the first great scientist of America. To him belongs the honor of showing that lightning is electricity, and the invention of the lightning-rod is his. Indirectly, all of our great electrical experiments are traceable to him.

FOR FURTHER READING.

HISTORY—Sypher's "Philadelphia."

BIOGRAPHY—Ellis' "Penn."

FICTION—W. H. G. Kingston's "A True Hero."

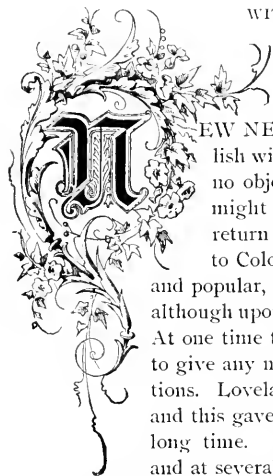
POETRY—J. G. Whittier's "Pennsylvania Pilgrim."

DRAMA—Schmidt Eber's "William Penn."

CHAPTER XXXI.

The Dutchman's Fireside.

THE RULE OF LOVELACE AT NEW YORK—THE DUTCH RETAKE THE CITY—IT AGAIN REVERTS TO THE ENGLISH BY PATENT—GOVERNOR ANDROS AND HIS UNPOPULAR RULE—LEISLER ASSUMES CONTROL—TROUBLE WITH NEW FRANCE.



NEW NETHERLAND was governed by the English with such happy results that the Dutch had no objections to any change of governors which might be desired, and when Nicolls wished to return home, the people gave a cordial welcome to Colonel Francis Lovelace. His rule was quiet and popular, and entirely without difficulty at the capital, although upon the borders there were some disturbances. At one time the men of the Long Island towns refused to give any money for renewing the New York fortifications. Lovelace ordered their votes to be publicly burned, and this gave rise to difficulties which continued for a long time. In the north, the French were disturbing, and at several times it was thought that war must be

declared against Courcelles, the Governor of Canada. But, while the people of New York were still thinking about the subject, they were given matters of more serious interest to attend to. England was again at war with Holland, and from time to time rumors reached New York that a Dutch fleet was on its way northward from the West Indies to retake the harbor. Lovelace was absent for the time being, and paid no attention to the summons from his Lieutenant-Governor.

On August 7, 1673, twenty-three Dutch ships, carrying sixteen hundred men, sailed into the bay of New York. The Dutch of the city rejoiced at the sight of their countrymen, and were not long in telling them the true condition of affairs. Such a force of men could well

afford to laugh at the fret and fume of the village, in which men were running to and fro as if they had lost their heads. Drums were beaten about the streets. One nervous smith set to work on fire-locks, and the militia of the surrounding towns was called for. The Dutch commander quietly demanded surrender, and when the English came to treat with him and to beg for time, he quietly turned an hour-glass over and said that if the English did not surrender within half an hour he would open fire. He did as he said, and a few in the fort were killed, and others wounded. Six hundred Dutch landed on the banks of the Hudson. The fort surrendered, and the Dutch again took possession where Peter Stuyvesant had once stumped about in martial pride. The Dutch names were restored to cities, forts, rivers and bays. The Dutch burgomaster took the place of the English mayor.

Antony Clove was chosen temporary Governor. Two ships-of-war were left him for protection, and the rest of the fleet sailed quietly away. New England was very much frightened when it heard of the success of the Dutch, but the Puritans were cautious, and though they took means for defending themselves, they did not venture to give the English of New York any assistance in ousting the Dutch. New York was easy to manage. So the citizens escaped plunder and outrage, they cared but little who their masters might be. The lawless class, which makes change of government in older cities so much to be dreaded, had no existence in the colonial towns.

Over in Europe, events were taking a new direction. Peace was made between England and Holland, and though the States-general were really the winners of peace on their own continent, they nevertheless gave up their possessions in the New World to the English. A patent of the New Netherland territory was given to the Duke of York in 1674. Major Edmund Andros was appointed by him to govern New York. The English names were restored, the officers reinstated, and all went on as it had under the rule of Nicolls and Lovelace. This was fifteen years before the time that Boston impeached the government of Andros and put him in prison. He thought but little of New York, which contained only six or seven thousand people, while New England had at least one hundred and twenty thousand—such a difference was there between the easy-going Dutch and the fiercely-determined Englishmen. Under English rule, a more rapid growth came to New York. There was not a little emigration from England. The industry of whaling, which brought so much wealth to Long Island, was taken up. All together there were twenty-four towns in the settlement and a

remarkable increase of farms, on which not only wheat and tobacco was raised, but even horses. Fish, peltry and lumber were quite heavily exported. In a very short time the manufacture of flour became an important industry.

When Andros chose to visit New York he was received with great pomp, which must have been a balm to his pride, hurt by the contempt with which the people of the southern colonies treated him. He went to Albany for the purpose of holding a council for the chiefs of the five nations, and succeeded in securing the promise of their friendship. Perhaps one reason that the New Yorkers had so little against Andros was that they saw so little of him, and that he thought the colony of too slight importance to greatly interfere with.

In New York were two decided political parties—or religious parties, for at this time it was hard to separate the two. James, the Catholic King of England, had been obliged to flee to France. William and Mary, the Protestants, had been proclaimed the King and Queen of England. The thoughtful saw that there would be danger of a conflict between the Catholic and Protestant factions. When Andros was deposed by the Boston Committee of Safety, the government of New York was left in the hands of the Lieutenant-Governor, Nicholson, and of the council. The Dutch inhabitants of New York were in sympathy with William and Mary. The English of New York were very largely Catholics. In New York, no proclamation of William and Mary was made, and the chaplain at the fort continued to pray for the infant Prince of Wales, and that the dethroned James might be victorious over his enemies. In consequence, there was a steadily increasing discontent shown among the Dutch. Nicholson feared that the question was getting too troublesome for him, and resigned his position and sailed for England. The council was very much frightened, which, as it lacked both brains and courage, it might well be. No one was appointed to take command, and it came about quite naturally, that one of the captains of the militia, with more vigor than the rest, should assume the control of affairs. It is such times of need which make leaders. This man was Jacob Leisler, who was willing to do no end of work and face a great deal of danger. The council would do nothing although the disposition of the colony grew steadily worse. Leisler saw the full danger, and when it came his turn to guard the fort with his company, he called all the trained bands together and made them sign a declaration by which they said that they held the fort for William and Mary, and would protect the Protestant religion. The council,

frightened at the threatening look of things, dispersed, some of the members going to Connecticut and others to Albany. Leisler, a merchant by trade, and a man of little education, was left in the entire control of affairs. He called a convention, at which he was appointed captain of the fort, and the delegates made themselves into a committee of safety. At the very outset Leisler was called upon to deal with some very serious matters.

King James had fled to France, and was the guest there of Louis XIV. Louis sent word to Frontenac, who was then Governor of Canada, that he should take it upon himself to search among the inhabitants of New York, and to send all French Protestants to France. The English Protestants were to be exported to New England, France or other places. The French Catholics were to be unmolested in their homes. Enough artisans and farmers to provide for the colony were to be left as slaves. Frontenac was not slow to obey the orders for invasion.

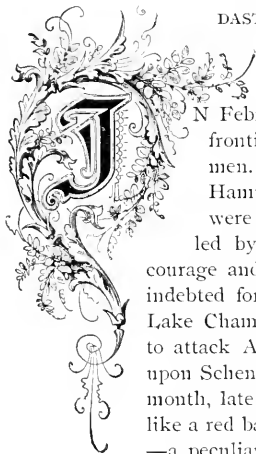
FOR FURTHER READING:

FICTION—Noah Brooks' "In Leisler's Time."

CHAPTER XXXII.

Frontenac the Fighter.

FRONTENAC'S ATTACK UPON NEW YORK—THE MASSACRE AT SCHENECTADY—NEW YORK IS FORTIFIED BY LEISLER—SLOUGHTER IS SENT TO SUPERSEDE HIM—LEISLER'S DEFENSE GETS HIM INTO TROUBLE—THE GOVERNOR'S DASTARDLY TAKING OFF.



IN February, 1669, Frontenac marched down to the frontier. He had three war parties of chosen men. One was to attack Albany, one New Hampshire and one Maine. A part of the men were Christian Iroquois. All three parties were led by LeMoyne, a young French gentleman of courage and spirit, to whose family France was greatly indebted for services in the New World. They crossed Lake Champlain on the ice. The Indians were afraid to attack Albany, and compelled the French to march upon Schenectady. They did so on the eighth of the month, late in the evening. The sun had rolled down like a red ball along the curve of the southern mountain—a peculiar effect, which, perhaps, cannot be seen anywhere else in the world. About it, even the Indians had poetic legends. There had been a festival at the village, but it ended early, as all gayeties did in those days, and everyone was in bed sleeping as the double line of warriors approached the palisaded town. There were no sentinels at the gate; instead there stood two gigantic snow figures, put up there by the boys and girls in jocund mockery of danger. One whoop from the Indians, and the men fell to work. In two hours sixty persons were killed, and eighty or ninety taken prisoners. Some ran through the snow and storm to Albany, but they were few. The village was burned. The commander at Albany saw that there was immediate need of reinforcement. Albany was the only town in New

York which had not admitted Leisler's government, but now she was forced to do so, and Leisler set to work to provide her with the men and supplies. Leisler asked all the other colonies to send delegates for the purpose of forming an expedition against the French. Seven delegates attended the first colonial congress, which met on May 1, 1690. All of these seven men will be mentioned again in history, so it is well to remember their names. They were Stoughton, Sewall, Gold, Pitkin, Walley, Leisler and De la Noye. It was agreed that Leisler should appoint the commander; that New York should provide four hundred men, Massachusetts one hundred and sixty, Connecticut one hundred and thirty-five, Plymouth sixty, and Maryland one hundred.

Leisler hastened to rebuild the fortifications of New York. He captured some French cruisers at sea, which were of considerable force to use at his need. The year was a busy and stirring one. The times were turbulent. Leisler was a merchant by education, a leader and fighter by temperament, and kept everyone well at work. It goes without saying that he was heartily hated by the Catholics of the colony. They were not only the Catholics, but, as it chanced, the aristocrats of the place, for the Protestant movement was the movement of the people. When William found time to send over a royal Governor he found plenty of complaints awaiting his ear. This royal Governor was Colonel Henry Sloughter. But it was not he who first appeared at New York, but Richard Ingoldsby, captain of a company of grenadiers, who arrived in New York a few weeks before his Governor, because Sloughter had chosen to go by way of the Bermudas. Ingoldsby seems to have had a very high idea of his own position, and on entering the port and finding that Leisler was in command of the fort, he ordered him to surrender. Leisler treated Ingoldsby politely, gave him quarters for his troops, but told him that he would not deliver the fort to any save he who held a warrant from the King. Ingoldsby had the impertinence to fire upon the fort for several hours. Leisler was not the man to let a fire go unreturned. A number of soldiers were killed.

Several weeks passed, with Leisler still governing and Ingoldsby protesting, before Sloughter arrived. The friends of Leisler say that he sent two gentlemen immediately to congratulate the Governor upon his arrival and to offer him the fort and government, but that the Governor would not listen to them, and threw them into jail. But Colonel Sloughter always said that he sent Ingoldsby to demand the fort, and that Leisler said he would own no Governor without orders from the King directed to him. However it may be, Ingoldsby marched into the

fort. Leisler's men surrendered. Sloughter issued a warrant for the arrest of Leisler and his council. They were tried for treason and murder. Leisler and seven others were found guilty and sentenced to death, but all of them were reprieved until they should know what the King's pleasure was in the matter.

The Catholics, so long irritated by Protestant rule, saw that their time for revenge had come. They used all the influence which they could bring to bear against Leisler. The Protestants were terrified, especially when they remembered the tragedy of Schenectady, and inferred from that what Jesuit rule might mean in New York. They sent in petitions for Leisler's pardon, while on the other hand the Catholics pressed petitions upon the Governor, begging for Leisler's execution. But Sloughter refused to sign Leisler's death-warrant. The assembly and various of the rich Catholics of New York prepared a feast, to which Sloughter was invited. Wine was plentiful, and under its influence the Governor was got to sign the death-warrant. The eight prisoners were executed before the Governor had recovered from the effects of his drinking. Leisler's young son had the question of his father's guilt argued before a committee of the House of Lords at London, three years later, and the judgment of the New York government was reversed. It was judged that Leisler was neither guilty of treason nor of murder. The family of Leisler was given its honorable reputation, and also a sum of money, in return for the charges made upon his private property during the time of his government. Sloughter only ruled over New York for four months. He died suddenly, and it is not unlikely that the friends of Leisler saw a special providence in this.

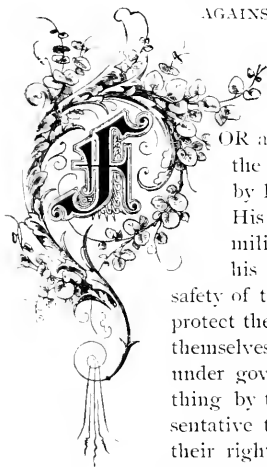
FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Broadhead and O'Callaghan's "New York."

CHAPTER XXXIII.

The Pest of the Pirates.

THE RULE OF GOVERNOR FLETCHER—FLETCHER SUCCEEDED BY THE
EARL OF BELLOMONT—THE COMMISSION OF CAPTAIN KIDD,
AND HOW IT WAS CARRIED OUT—LORD CORNBURY
BECOMES GOVERNOR—THE EXPEDITIONS
AGAINST PORT ROYAL AND
QUEBEC.



FOR a short time Captain Ingoldsby attended to the duties of governorship, but was relieved by Benjamin Fletcher, Governor for the King. His commission gave him command of the militia of the New England colonies as well as his own. It was thought necessary for the safety of the colonies to have a general commander to protect them from the Indians. The colonies believed themselves to be independent, and certainly were under governors of their own, if one could tell anything by their charters. Connecticut sent a representative to England to complain of the violation of their rights under the charter. Rhode Island also sent an agent to protest to the King. While these men were in England, Fletcher came to Hartford and ordered the militia under arms. Governor Treat refused to let Fletcher assume command of his troops, but the militia was permitted to muster at Hartford. Fletcher ordered his commission and instructions to be read to the troops. In command at the front was Captain Wadsworth, and as soon as the reading began he cried, "Beat the drums!" and all the sturdy Puritan drummers fell to raising such a noise that the voice of the reader was entirely drowned. The more the Governor shouted for silence the louder the hot-headed Wadsworth shouted for them to drum, until finally the Governor had to yield, leaving Treat in command.

Fletcher sold licenses to privateers and pirates, and under his rule New York and the surrounding islands gained the reputation of being a nest of pirates.

In the north, Frontenac was still active. The Mohawks had been won to the side of the English, and three years after the massacre of Schenectady the French took three of the Mohawk towns. Major Schuyler, of Albany, was sent hurriedly after the French. In a few days he had overtaken them. They had three engagements, in which the French were repulsed each time. Then came a terrible fall of snow, and, hungry and cold, the troops on both sides were forced to retire to their rude fortifications. On both sides were Indian allies. The Indians had a dislike for the Christian mode of warfare, and always shrank from open attack. For this reason they delayed the action constantly, first the French, then the English allies refusing to move. It was on this account that the French finally escaped by the floating ice on the Hudson, and got out of Schuyler's reach. Frontenac's party, suffering for food, straggled back in small parties to Canada.

Fletcher had shown such greed and dishonesty in his administration that he was deposed from office, and the Earl of Bellomont put in his place. It was found by this time that the southern colonies could not be dealt with easily, and that their rights could not be disposed of without protest. The experiment which had failed with Fletcher was not tried with Bellomont. He was appointed Governor of New York and Massachusetts, but only Captain-General over the military forces of Connecticut, Rhode Island and the Jerseys. One of the first things which Bellomont did was to get from the New York assembly an acknowledgment of the error under which Leisler was condemned, and he had his body taken up from the private ground and reburied with public state in the Dutch church. His vigorous action gave strength to the Protestant party and the promise of a fair and determined administration.

Honest commerce had been almost choked under Fletcher's rule, and it was Bellomont's ambition to get rid of that class of French seamen who, under the excuse of war commissions, seized upon every ship whose cargo tempted them. These rovers made a journey upon the sea a thing of risk and terror to peaceable people. One of this class was Captain Kidd. This valorous but unfortunate personage, about whom so much has been written and told, was the friend of great men. One of Bellomont's methods for getting rid of the pirates was to send out a ship, at the expense of a joint stock company, for the purpose

of capturing pirate vessels. A number of great noblemen, and the King himself, were to receive parts of the profits of the adventure. Bellomont and his friends provided a ship for Kidd's use, paying four-fifths of the cost. The rest was paid by Kidd. The crew was not to take more than one-fourth of the prizes captured. If nothing was taken, Kidd was to return the cost of the galley before March 1, 1697. Kidd's previous reputation had not been particularly bad. He was a sea rover, and even then was known as a man of unusual adventure and daring. For this very reason he was thought a fit commander for the one hundred and fifty lawless men put under his charge.

At that time Madagascar was a great resort for pirates. There they lived in barbaric splendor, in a manner not unsuggestive of the marvels of Monte Cristo. The first time Kidd was heard of he was living among these sumptuous outlaws. It seems that he had been unable to capture any of the pirates whom he had been sent out for, and had gone to Madagascar in the hope that he might fall in with some better luck. After a time he took to the sea again, and went as far as India, but meeting none of the vessels which he was authorized to overhaul, he finally preyed upon merchant vessels for his own benefit. For several years he followed this adventurous life, and in 1699 sailed unconcernedly into the New York harbor. Bellomont did not arrest him, because Kidd assured him that he could prove his innocence of the crimes of which he was accused, and he was allowed to go to Boston. There, however, he was arrested. He was thrown into jail, and tried to get out by telling of forty thousand pounds of treasure which was hidden in the West Indies, and which would be lost unless he himself went for it. Kidd was sent to England, where he lay in prison for a year. The Tories were determined that he should be convicted, since he had been the friend of the famous Whigs, and of Bellomont, the Governor. He was tried and convicted of the murder of a gunner whom he had accidentally killed in a brawl. And so Captain Kidd, the daring rover, was hanged. He was more famous than many better men, and it will be long before the youths of this country and England have ceased to feel interested in his daring exploits.

When Lord Bellomont died, in 1701, Lord Cornbury, a cousin of Queen Anne, who, a year later, came to the throne, was appointed Governor. Truth to tell, it was only by quitting the country that he could escape being imprisoned for debt. He was a very worthless man, given up to drink and debauchery of all kinds, and the only interest that he took in his new office came from the hope that he might rapidly

enrich himself. This year (1702) a dreadful yellow fever epidemic broke out in New York, which carried off more than five hundred within ten weeks. Cornbury was so unscrupulous that he did not even take pains to conceal his greed. He gathered large sums of money for the purpose of building a fortification at the Narrows, and then calmly kept the money for his own use. After this the assembly insisted upon giving all the money for public purposes into the hands of a treasurer of their own. The Governor immediately appealed to the crown, protesting against the insult to himself, but the crown refused to take his part. He was a fierce religionist, for all of his bad ways, and showed as great a lack of scruple in the matters relating to the church as in other affairs. One story which is told of him illustrates clearly the temper of the man. When the yellow fever was so bad in New York, he went to a town upon Long Island until it should be over. The Presbyterian minister there had the best house in town, and he courteously yielded this to the Governor to use during his stay. When the Governor no longer needed it he handed it over to a few representatives of the Established Church of England, who lived at the place, and said that the ground attached could be leased for the support of their church. He persecuted the Presbyterians throughout the colony, and would not allow a school teacher or clergyman to teach or preach except by a special license.

Down in Massachusetts the royal Governor, Dudley, was making matters disagreeable, and continually fighting the charter governments. But there was a strong element in the colonies now which could not easily be crushed. The popular party had some brilliant men in it who were neither afraid to speak nor to suffer, and the arrogant governors knew they could go but so far. Everything which Cornbury did was disagreeable to the simple and industrious colonists. For one thing, he dressed like a woman, in great splendor, saying that it was proper that he should be so clothed to more fittingly represent his sovereign mistress, the Queen. He insulted the Quakers, who were no longer the wild and ill-advised creatures who had shocked the Boston meetings, but grave and dignified citizens. The people appealed to the Queen for protection, and Cornbury was recalled. He was arrested for debt and thrown in jail, where he remained until he became Earl of Clarendon, through the death of his father. Lord Lovelace was appointed Governor, but died in a short time. At this time New York was intending to send an expedition against Canada, and as the treasury was empty, issued bills of credit, the first ever put out by New York.

But the English fleet was routed, and it was necessary to think of other means for subduing the French province.

At this time the five nations were the friends of the English, and it was thought best to take advantage of their fickle friendship. Schuyler, with five Indian chiefs, was sent to England to beg for help in the conquest of the French. He was given ships and men for an expedition, and joined with the New England men in the taking of Port Royal. Robert Hunter had succeeded Lord Lovelace as Governor of New York. He was in favor of pushing the war against the French. The New England people had received most of the credit of the capture of Port Royal, and the New Yorkers were anxious to do something as brilliant. The fleet was a large one. There were sixteen men-of-war and twenty transports, which started in the summer of 1711, under Sir Hovenden Walker, for the attack upon Quebec. Altogether there were seven thousand men. But the fleet had only sailed ten leagues up the St. Lawrence, when ten or eleven of the ships drifted upon the rocks, and one thousand men were drowned. Meanwhile, a detachment had marched from Albany to attack Montreal. Hearing of the disaster to the ships, those troops fell back. England won nothing, but the French were much alarmed.

In 1719 Hunter retired, and Burnet took his place. He was devoted to the interests of the people, but was not popular. He conceived a new plan for the conquest of the French. Most of the Canadian supplies were got from Albany, and he proposed to prohibit all trade between his own province and Canada, but this did not please the tradesmen, although it did the assembly. Few merchants care enough for national independence to see their trade decrease. The trade with Canada was carried on as if the Governor had not prohibited it. In the face of this opposition the Governor was not able to keep his temper, and did some ill-advised things. In 1727 he was removed and transferred to Massachusetts Bay. He was fonder of writing works on the Bible than governing, perhaps, and would no doubt have succeeded better as a private citizen than as a leader of men. The next Governor died shortly after his arrival, and Rip Van Dam, the eldest member of the council, acted as Governor until Colonel Cosby arrived, in 1732, to take the head of the colony.

FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Parkman's "Frontenac."

FICTION—J. H. Ingraham's "Captain Kyd."

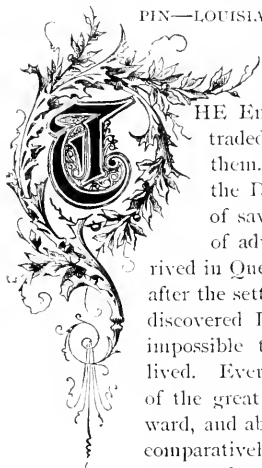


Mr van Buren

CHAPTER XXXIV.

The Holy Voyageurs.

THE FRENCH AND THE DISCOVERIES IN THE NORTHWEST—FATHERS
JOLIET AND MARQUETTE DISCOVER THE SOURCE OF THE MIS-
SISSIPPI AND SAIL DOWN THE RIVER—DEATH OF MAR-
QUETTE—THE EXPEDITION OF LASALLE AND HENNE-
PIN—LOUISIANA DISCOVERED AND NAMED.



THE English treated with the Indians, the Dutch traded with them, and the French lived with them. More imaginative than the English or the Dutch, they saw at once the picturesqueness of savage life, and appreciated the wild delights of adventure and discovery. Champlain had arrived in Quebec on July 3, 1608. This was only a year after the settlement in Jamestown. Four years later he discovered Lake Ontario and Lake Nipissing. It was impossible to content that gallant explorer while he lived. Ever restless, he went from one point to another of the great unknown continent which stretched westward, and about which the English seemed to have had comparatively little curiosity. There grew up in Quebec a race of men half Indian in habit, who preferred the wilderness to civilization. They were absolutely fearless, good fighters, capable of endurance, fleet of foot, excellent hunters, and sincere Catholics. They carried the cross of Christ in one hand and their muskets in the other, so to speak. The jaunty songs of these voyageurs made the wilderness ring. Jean Nicollet was one of these men, who went as far west as what we know as Wisconsin.

In the year 1640 the Fathers Chaumonot and Brebœuf coasted along the northern shore of the State of Ohio, through the fair chain of waters by Detroit, and up the eastern shores of Michigan as far as the Straits of Macinae. Fourteen years later, two young traders went

far west upon Lake Superior, and heard there of the great tribe of Sioux. When these traders returned to Montreal, in 1660, with sixteen canoes packed with furs, they excited great interest in the city, and quickened the love of adventure which already existed among the Frenchmen. The French had had many unhappy experiences with the Indians. The latter could not understand the mysticism of the Frenchman's religion; in his burning tapers, his altars, robes and crucifix, they saw the symbols of superstition, and thought the Frenchmen must be the familiars of evil spirits. The French who had ventured to settle near Onondaga for the purpose of converting the Indians there, had been glad to escape with their lives. Father Jogues had been treacherously murdered, in 1646, by the Mohawks, in the Mohawk valley, simply because of the fear which his missal and altar produced. But undismayed by such catastrophes the zealous Jesuits continued to establish new missions.

In the summer of 1660 Father Mesnard founded a mission on a point of the southern shore of Lake Superior, known then and now as Chagwamegan. He lost his life in some mysterious way, and in 1665 Father Allouez took up the mission there, preaching in the Algonquin language to twelve or fifteen different tribes. Even the Sioux heard of him, and it was through them that he heard first of the Mississippi. In 1669 Father Aloney, with Father Dablon, went as far as the Fox river, learning from the Indians not a little about the geography of the country.

But the more thorough enterprise began when Jean Talon was appointed overseer of the trade of Canada. He called a council of Indians at the fort of Lake Superior, in 1671. An adventurer who knew the language and customs of the Indians was there, and representatives of Louis XIV. Chiefs of tribes from Hudson Bay and the head of Lake Superior and Lake Michigan were there. A cross was erected to which the arms of France was fastened, and possession was taken in the name of the French crown, and the chiefs promised to be loyal to the great King of France. Under this guarantee of friendship, Louis Joliet and Father Marquette started on an expedition in 1673. They discovered the source of the Mississippi, and went as far south as the mouth of the Arkansas. Father Marquette was a delightful writer, and left an account of his travels, full of romance and piety. The Indians everywhere were friendly, and the travelers even saw at one village a cross erected and adorned, which showed that the religion of the Jesuits was creeping among the tribes. With two Indian guides,

they were shown the passage from the Fox to the Wisconsin river, and from the St. Lawrence to the Mississippi river. Down this wild river, many hundred leagues from their own countrymen, the two peaceful but courageous Frenchmen floated, seeing little life besides great herds of buffaloes. They slept in their canoes at night for fear of being surprised. It was a good many days before they found any traces of men. Following up a trail which they had discovered, they came upon a party of Illinois Indians. These Indians were more demonstrative than those of the east. They indulged more in ceremonials, and had a more complex religion, at least so one must believe from the accounts left of them, though the difference may have lain largely in the fact that the Frenchmen were appreciative.

The chief of the Illinois village came forth from his wigwam, naked, to welcome Joliet and Marquette, raising his hands to the sun. About him danced other braves, with the red calumet, or pipe of peace, in their hands. They were invited to visit the Indian village, where they were given a feast and led in a sort of triumphal procession to see the town. The people went with them to their canoes, with every expression of pleasure and courtesy which they could give.

Soon after this the explorers saw the painted rocks, so famous afterward. These were rocks on which the Indians had painted, in a way which Marquette protested to be as good as anything that could be done in France. They were ruthlessly destroyed by quarrying, in the present century. They then struck the great, muddy flow of the Missouri, staining the blue Mississippi with its repulsive streak. Marquette hoped that he might reach the Gulf of California, of which the Spaniards had given such glowing accounts. Marquette saw iron mines up the Ohio river near its meeting with the Mississippi, which showed that the French traders had already been as far as that point. They met with Indians who had guns, powder, knives, hatchets and cloth, which they had got from the Europeans on the eastern coast. Again and again the calumet saved Marquette and his friend from attack by the Indians, and at length, fearing that they might fall into the hands of the Spaniards, they turned northward again.

When they reached the Illinois river they followed the course of that stream and made a portage into Lake Michigan. "We have seen nothing equal to this river for the goodness of the land," said Marquette. "The prairies, wood, cattle, deer, goats, bustards, swans, ducks, paroquets, and even beaver, abound here. There are many little lakes and little rivers." They had started in June, and by September were back

to the French mission at Green Bay. Marquette lived for two years among the Miami Indians. His death is very touching. The gentle old man was making his way in his canoe to Macinac, in 1675, and stopped on the eastern shore of Lake Michigan to raise an altar and celebrate the mass. He seemed unaccountably sad, and asked his companions to leave him alone a little while. They did so, and when they came to him, found him dead.

When Joliet reached Montreal with his story of the expedition, Robert Cavalier de La Salle, a Norman gentleman who had established a trading post at Lachine, not far from Montreal, felt that the time for an expedition had come. Frontenac gave La Salle letters of introduction at court, and he succeeded in getting all he asked for. With thirty men, plenty of stores and tools, he marched to Lake Ontario, made the portage by Niagara Falls to Lake Erie, and at Port Frontenac built a ship of forty-five tons. He named it the *Griffin*. She was armed with seven cannons, and well built, considering the disadvantages of her construction. She sailed westward in 1679, reaching the settlement of Green Bay in September. The *Griffin* was freighted with fur, and La Salle, with some of his men, walked to St. Joseph, at the head of Lake Michigan, nearly opposite the river Chicago. Here he waited for the *Griffin*, but it never appeared. Depressed, but determined, he pushed westward, and established in the present La Salle county, in Illinois, Fort Creve-Cœur. La Salle sent Father Hennepin to trace the Illinois to the mouth, which he did, and then went up the Mississippi as far as the falls of St. Antony. He was taken prisoner by the Sioux. They allowed him to return to his own country, with the promise that he would visit them the next year.

La Salle decided to return to Niagara, and left Henri de Tonty in charge at Creve-Cœur. The Iroquois Indians drove Tonty and his men from the fort, and as he hurried down the west side of Lake Michigan, La Salle came up the east side with reinforcements. Bitterly disappointed at finding the fort deserted, La Salle returned to Montreal, where he succeeded in making arrangements with his creditors—for the loss of the *Griffin* had seriously embarrassed him—for another expedition. La Salle sailed in 1681, with twenty-three Frenchmen and eighteen Indians. The Indians took with them ten of their wives. With the party were the Chevalier Henri de Tonty, Father Zenobe, and Dautray, the son of the Procureur General of Quebec. These crossed the lake to the Chicago river, and it may interest the thousands who daily pass over that torpid and ill-smelling stream to know that they named it the

"Divine River." They stopped for a time upon the present site of Chicago, and then went on to the mouth of the Illinois. La Salle went on down the river as fast as the ice would permit him. On each side lay the shores, snow-clad; the trees glittering through the long, quiet nights with fairy frost. The stillness was absolute. It was not until they had sailed forty-five leagues that they heard the sounds of men. La Salle knew they had been seen by the savages, and thought it best to build a fort. He sent the calumet of peace to the Indian chiefs, and established pleasant relations immediately. He speaks particularly of the gayety of these southern Indians as compared with the severe and sombre natives of the north. He left a cross there with St. Louis' arms, and upon his return found that the Indians had surrounded it with a palisade that it might not be harmed. Next he passed the village of the Arkansas, where a superior people lived, with well-built houses, having roofs of canes, fixed so as to form a dome. They were ornamented with barbaric but effective paintings. They had furniture, also, and understood the making of cloth. Next they came across the Natchez Indians, and passing them, pushed on in the hope of finding the sea. At last the water of the river tasted salt. A little further on and it became saltier. A little further yet and they looked upon the sea. Planting the cross, with the arms of France, they took possession of the mouth of the Mississippi in the name of King Louis. The expedition made its way back slowly, La Salle suffering from severe illness. The report of his great discovery was sent to France, and finally La Salle himself crossed to confer with King Louis. He was given power for the colonization of Louisiana. Louisiana, as La Salle named the territory for the King, included the present State of Louisiana and all the territory north of the line of Texas and west of the Mississippi to the Rocky Mountains.

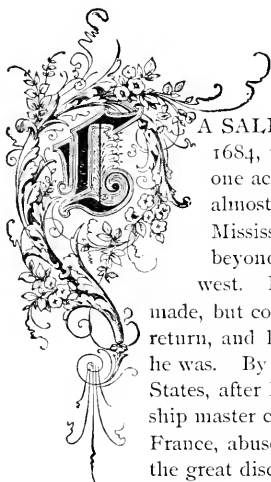
FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Parkman's "France and England in North America."
"La Salle's Discovery of the Great West."

CHAPTER XXXV.

The Chevalier La Salle.

LA SALLE LANDS ON THE SHORE OF TEXAS—HE IS MURDERED—THE HUT
IN THE WILDERNESS—THE EXPEDITION OF D'IBERVILLE—THE
SETTLEMENT OF NEW ORLEANS, AND THE MISSISSIPPI
—SCHEME OF JOHN LAW—THE MASSACRE OF
CHOPART—BIENVILLE'S ILL-FATED
EXPEDITION AGAINST THE
CHICKASAWS.



LA SALLE set sail from France on the 24th of July, 1684, with four vessels and a fine equipment, but one accident after another delayed him, and it was almost a year before he neared the mouth of the Mississippi. Through a miscalculation he passed beyond the mouth of the river and landed farther west. La Salle was sure that a mistake had been made, but could not induce the captain of the fleet to return, and had no choice but to land his goods where he was. By this accident Texas was first of the Gulf States, after Florida, to be settled by Europeans. The ship master cruelly deserted La Salle, and returning to France, abused the ear of the King with stories about the great discoverer, which so injured him in the esteem of the court that no relief was sent to him—relief which he was in great need of. Fortunately the Indians were gentle and hospitable, and helped to supply the wretched little colony with food. La Salle spent his time in unavailing searches for the Mississippi, which came to seem to him at last like some mythical stream, having no existence.

It was on one of these journeys that the gallant and unfortunate explorer met his death. He left the post in charge of twenty of his

colonists, and taking as many more with him, started out with no guide but a compass and no protection from savages, except that furnished by a few arms and his conciliatory policy. They had been out about three months, when La Salle sent out a party in search of some supplies which had been left upon a previous journey. This party killed two buffaloes and sent back for horses to bring the meat to camp.

La Salle's young nephew, Morangetand, and two others, went with the horses. Morangetand flew into a passion because the hunters had set apart a portion of the meat for themselves. This the law of hunting clearly entitled them to, but Morangetand was a hot-headed young fellow, who had the pride of La Salle without his gentleness.

The hunters laid a plot for the killing of Morangetand and two faithful servants who were with him. This they did at night while the men were sleeping. The hunters lacked the courage to meet La Salle, and lingered so long that the Chevalier grew anxious, and calling a friar for company, walked in search of them. There is a tradition that as he went a great sadness came over him. He talked of his successes as if they were things of the past, and all the philosophy of the gentle friar was not able to arouse him from this melancholy mood. As he neared the place where he knew the hunters to be, he fired his pistol to let them know of his approach, and they crossed the river to meet him. He asked where his nephew was, and was answered insolently. La Salle rebuked him, and the hunter fired, shooting him through the brain. He was only forty-six years old, and in all his able life was never more full of vigor and enterprise. Had he lived, the history of the Mississippi valley would have been very different.

There was a quarrel among the murderers, in which the man who fired the fatal shot was himself killed. The rest of the colony were eager to get out of the wilderness as soon as they could. The good friar and four others decided to push toward Canada, and mounting their horses, bade their friends farewell. What became of those who remained at the colony is not known. The friar and his friends, journeying northward, came suddenly upon a cottage built in the French style. Near it stood a cross. The bewildering effect of such a sight in the heart of the wilderness can be imagined. It was the dwelling of two of Henri de Tonty's men, Charpentier and De Launay, who had been left on the banks of the Mississippi two years before. Here one of the friar's friends remained. These three Frenchmen were the only living souls left to mark the adventures of the French in the valley of the Mississippi—Louisiana, the French called it.

It was ten years after La Salle's death before France made any strong effort to renew the colonization of the Mississippi valley. Sieur Lemoyne d'Iberville, son of the distinguished Baron Longuenil, of Canada, was then given the command of an expedition fitted out by the King for the planting of a colony. Baron Longuenil had eleven sons, not to mention numerous young kinsmen, all of whom were men of spirit. Many of them were concerned in the fierce fights of the French and English at the north. D'Iberville had two frigates under his charge when he left France, and the three vessels joined him at Saint Domingo. This was in 1699. With him was that same friar who was the friend of La Salle in that ill-fated colony, St. Louis. He it was who pointed out to d'Iberville the strong, turbid flow of the Mississippi, staining the blue gulf. Up the river they found Indians who had cloaks which La Salle had given them, and a breviary which the friar had left in 1682. The boats were moved from Biloxi Island to the Mobile Bay, on d'Iberville's first journey. The second time he came, he found a point on the Mississippi river about thirty-eight miles below the present city of New Orleans. This settlement, established in 1700, was the first really made in Louisiana, as we know the State now. That on the Mobile Bay was abandoned in a short time and re-established on the Mobile river. By this time communication was established between Canada and the settlements of Louisiana, by way of the great river, Lake Erie, and the Miami Portage. About this time an Englishman by the name of Coxe sent out an expedition to explore and take possession of the Mississippi, under a charter given to Coxe by Charles II for the territory west of Florida. This expedition was met by one of the Frenchmen, Bienville, the brother of d'Iberville, and when inquiry was made concerning the situation of the Mississippi, Bienville, with a Frenchman's calm and polite exterior, told him that it was farther west. The Englishman turned into that dismal country where La Salle had wandered so long. He who rides down the Mississippi may still know the place where the Englishmen went into the wilderness, by the name of "English Turn." Fortunately for the little French colony, Spain and France were in alliance at this period, and the Spanish governors of Mexico and Florida were willing to give such help as they could. The King granted the whole territory to Antoine Crozat. Crozat appointed as his Governor, Cadillac, a soldier, who came to the colony in May, 1713. It was but natural that Bienville, who had done so much practical work there—for his brother, d'Iberville, was now dead—should resent the coming of the new officials. Their

quarrels were the beginning of parties, which lasted for many years. Cadillac was a determined explorer, and sent an expedition into Texas which had much to do with the early history of that State. When he returned to France, in two years from the time of his coming, M. de L'Epiany was appointed Governor in his stead. But Louisiana was to have a success which no half-way colonial enthusiasm could make. With the death of Louis the Magnificent, in 1715, began the reign of the Regent, Duke of Orleans, and with him there came into power in France a company of determined financiers, unscrupulous men, who tried to avert the bankruptcy of the kingdom. Foremost among these men was John Law, an Englishman, who was already noted for daring business schemes, and who had laid out a plan for a national bank which was far superior to anything of that day. France was terribly in debt, and John Law proposed a bank discount which was to issue bills redeemable in coin on merchants' notes. The Duke of Orleans was the patron of this bank. Law asked and obtained Crozat's privileges to the Mississippi trade, and formed a company which united the commerce of Louisiana and the fur trade of Canada. This was called the Western Company, and grants were given to it for twenty-five years. It had a nominal capital of 100,000,000 livres—an actual capital of about 40,000,000 livres. Unsubstantial as the actual value of this property was, and as Louis must have known it to have been, it nevertheless satisfied the depressed merchants of France. Law worked hard; he had troops sent over as well as vessels of colonists. Bienville was once more made Governor-General of Louisiana. He selected New Orleans for the capital, and in February, 1718, left fifty persons to secure the loan and begin the building of houses. Vessels brought large parties of colonists here the following years.

John Law's scheme seemed to succeed, and in 1719 he so gained the confidence of merchants, that he was able to join with the East India Company of France. The name of the corporation was changed to the Indian Company. New shares were now issued at a par of 500 livres, and no one was allowed to take any new shares who had not four old ones to show. For the first time for many years France found herself in a seemingly prosperous condition. John Law's scheme did not show its hollowness, until at length the actual value of the bonds were put to test. The Indian Company would not even accept their own shares as collateral for the purchase of new shares. It goes without saying that no one else would accept them in exchange for things of actual value. All that vast stretch of land by the Mississippi, valuable enough to

form the basis of a nation, had no value then, lying uncultivated and uninhabited. Among other serious mistakes, France had made that of sending adventurers and fortune-hunters, instead of industrious peasants, to Louisiana.

The great bubble burst in 1770. Law was protected from the consequences of his fatal scheme by becoming a Roman Catholic and securing an appointment as minister. The valley of the Mississippi ceased to be of great commercial interest to France, and was left to the quiet attendance of the Jesuit missionaries; John Law's scheme had brought to Louisiana several hundred colonists and had not been so unfortunate an affair as might been expected from its magnitude and its false basis. The Germans whom Law had brought over had been deserted by him, but their habits of hard work and their love of nature had been their preservation. There still exist above New Orleans, on the German coast, luxurious farms and homes, built by these exiles and sustained by their descendants.

The French settlement at Natchez was the most prosperous of the trading posts upon the river. The Natchez Indians were a very interesting tribe, not lacking in some good form of government. Like all of the rest of the southern Indians, they had imagination and warmth of temperament. They were sun-worshippers. Their chief was called Brother of the Sun. The temple in which he worshiped was built in the shape of a dome, with walls of smooth clay. Three wooden eagles, one red, another white, and the third yellow, perched above it. Mats of braided straw were placed upon the top to furnish protection from the rain. Around it was a palisade, in which were placed the skulls the Natchez had brought back from battle. The palace of the chief was not unlike the temple. It was built upon an artificial hill, so that the first rays of the sun might awaken the chief, for the door fronted the east. With many wild howls to the sun, he lighted his calumet and devoted his first puffs to his mighty kinsman. He then directed his course through the heavens by moving his hands from the east to the west. The royal descent was traced through the female line. The royal princesses were allowed to marry none but men of low family. It was their sons who succeeded to the throne, and as soon as an heir presumptive was born, a number of infants nearest his age were selected to be his guard. All through his life he was taken care of by these servants, who hunted for him and farmed for him, and when he died, permitted themselves to be strangled, that they might continue to serve him in another world. All this is described by Charlevoix, who left

Canada in 1720 to visit the Canadian missions, and stopped at Kaskaskia, in the present State of Illinois, the oldest settlement in that State. Going down the river in a canoe made from a large walnut tree, he visited the German coast, New Orleans and Natchez. Charlevoix says that the Natchez Indians had decreased rapidly in number, and that in six years they had lost two thousand fighting men.

The commander of the fort at Natchez, in 1729, was Chopart, a man both narrow and selfish. He sent to the Brother of the Sun and told him that the French wished the Natchez to leave the site of their beautiful village and give it up to the French. This the Natchez promptly refused to do. Chopart insisted that they must move away, within two months. Up to this time the Natchez had been friendly to the French, but they now made up their minds that they must get rid of them. They got the Choctaws to join in the plan, and little bunches of sticks were exchanged between the chiefs to indicate the number of days before that selected for the massacre, but unfortunately the little son of the Natchez chief saw his father burning the sticks in the temple, and after his father had left, burned two more which he added to the pack. This, of course, misled the Choctaw chief. When the day appointed by the Natchez came, they gave a dinner to Chopart. He ate and drank with them till 3 o'clock in the morning, and then returned to his home. In a little while the Brother of the Sun came out with his warriors, who bore the calumet high on a stick. They went to Chopart's house pretending they had come to bring him the tribute which he had told them he would exact if they did not move from the village in two months. Chopart, without dressing, opened the door and asked them to enter. At that time, in every house in the settlement were one or more Indians. Most of the chief's warriors went to the river, where a well-laden galley had just come from New Orleans. Every Indian picked out a man among those working on the galley, and firing, killed him. This was the signal for a general slaughter. In every house the Indians fell upon the settlers. Only one soldier escaped from the garrison. Some of the women were killed, but most of them were taken to be held as slaves. Two hundred Frenchmen were killed within an hour's time, Chopart among them.

Two days later the Choctaws, down by New Orleans, sent a delegation to the Brother of the Sun, and learned that the Natchez had already moved against the French. The Choctaws, not understanding the reason of the mistake in the day of the attack, turned all of their anger against the Natchez. Fugitives from the massacre began to arrive from

New Orleans and Perier. The commander of the fort there formed an army, in which the Choctaws joined, to move against the Natchez Indians. The Natchez Indians surrendered, leaving their town and moving up the Red river. The next summer Perier moved after them again. Once more they surrendered to him, and two hundred of them were sold as slaves to Saint Domingo. Three hundred escaped, and their descendants are living at this time upon the farms in the valleys of the Ouachita river.

The Western Company, hearing of the difficulties, represented its losses to the King, and he assumed the responsibility of it by making it a royal province. Bienville, who had been in France for some time, was again sent over as Governor-General in 1736. The first thing he did was to prepare an expedition to the remnant of the Natchez Indians. The Chickasaws at that time were allies of the Indian colony, and sure of their strength, refused to yield up the Natchez Indians, who were given to them for protection. Bienville sent word to the fort at Kaskaskia to meet him with as many men as he could muster on the 10th of May, in the Chickasaw country, so Bienville himself led out the army from New Orleans to Mobile, on sixty small craft. He was met by the Choctaws, his allies, and on the 24th began the building of a rude fort seven miles distant from the Chickasaw village. When they moved against the Chickasaw stockade they met with a heavy loss, and were obliged to retreat. They were much puzzled at seeing Europeans among the Chickasaw Indians. These they supposed to be Englishmen, but they were the Frenchmen from Kaskaskia, who had moved upon the day set by Bienville and had been taken prisoners. The Indian allies had forced the commander to attack, instead of allowing them to wait, as his judgment told him, for the reinforcement from New Orleans. After the retreat of Bienville on the 24th, this unfortunate commander and all of his followers were taken to a plain, tied to stakes, and burned to death. Bienville's warriors, who had been left upon the field over night, had their bodies cut to pieces and their heads stuck defiantly on the palisades of the Chickasaws.

Four years later, in 1740, Bienville led another expedition against the Chickasaws by way of the Mississippi river. He had heavy reinforcements from Fort Assumption, which was near the site of the present city of Memphis. The Chickasaws were alarmed, and offered to surrender all the white slaves in their possession on condition of peace. Bienville accepted the terms. After an absence of ten months the array returned to New Orleans. Fort Assumption was torn down, and no

other military post was put in its place for one hundred and twenty years. In 1741 Bienville returned to France.

Three years later than this there were but 1,700 white men, 1,500 women, and 2,020 slaves in the whole Mississippi valley, after thirty years of expensive colonization. Fifteen years later, when Louis XV had come to the throne, there was a falling off of these homes. For eight years after the return of Bienville to France, the Marquis de Vandreuil held the position of royal Governor. The colony was in constant alarm from fear of the English by sea and the Indians by land—alarm which was greater than the case called for. In 1751 the Marquis had two thousand soldiers under his orders and the expenses of the colony were entirely out of proportion to its comforts. It was the farmers, quietly working upon their plantations, who conquered the Mississippi valley and made it valuable. Cotton was being raised, gin and sugar manufactured, indigo cultivated, and the common vegetables and fruits raised for the personal use of the settlers. Already in Illinois wheat was becoming so successful a product that it was exported to the distant seaport. The mines of copper and lead were being developed in the Northwest, and silk and tobacco were being introduced.

Following, came the administration of Kerleric, which lasted for ten years. At the end of that time he was thrown into the Bastile, accused with misappropriating money.

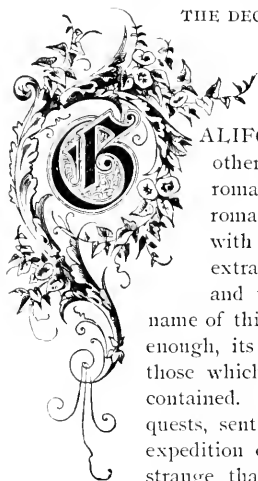
FOR FURTHER READING:

Parkman's "France and England in North America."

CHAPTER XXXVI.

The Land of Gold.

CALIFORNIA—SPANISH EXPLORERS—THE JOURNEY OF SIR FRANCIS
DRAKE—THE COAST INDIANS—EXPEDITION OF ESPEJO—
OVERTHROW OF THE JESUITS—ONATE AND HIS
LABORS—THE MISSIONS AT THE SOUTH—
THE DECLINE OF SPAIN AND HER
COLONIES.



CALIFORNIA did not receive its name as the other States did. It took it from a certain fantastic romance, written by a Spanish author. This romance pictured an imaginary kingdom glittering with gold and diamonds, in which the most extraordinary events were constantly taking place, and where riches were free to everyone. The name of this remarkable land was California, and, oddly enough, its imaginary riches were hardly greater than those which the most western of our States actually contained. Cortez, always ambitious and eager for conquests, sent out Hernando Grijalva, in 1534, on an expedition of discovery to the Pacific coast. It is not strange that the Spaniards gave the name of the romance to a country whose charms are so great that the people marvel over them to-day as they did then. The methods of Grijalva were too languid to suit the nervous and impatient Cortez, and the following year, taking four hundred Spaniards and three hundred slaves with him, he himself embarked for California. Not only was he impatient for the conquest of this productive land, but was anxious to see if he could learn the fate of a small expedition which he had previously sent north by land. He had only well started on his journey of discovery, when he heard that his civil power had been taken from him and given to the Viceroy, Mendoza. His military position was all that was left him,

and he was obliged to return to Mexico, after coasting on both sides of the Gulf of California. Francisco de Ulloa was sent to take up the exploration. Pearls were found in the Gulf of California at the very first, and the pearl fishery that has continued to this day was systematically taken up then. Reports of the richness of this country excited the jealousy of Mendoza, the ruler of Mexico, and he determined to send out an explorer himself in the same direction that Ulloa had taken. The Spaniards were excited with the reports brought to them by the four men who had started with Narvaez from Florida. These men, it will be recollected, traveled alone from Florida to the Gulf of California. They brought tales of seven wonderful cities which contained castles built of gold, silver, turquoise and diamonds. Vasquez Coronado was the man chosen to go in search of these. It was not long before he reached the territory which the men had described as the "seven cities" but in them, alas! was found no gold, silver, diamonds nor turquoise. There were, however, very substantial buildings, three or four lofts high, with ladders leading from one story to another. The people wore cotton dresses and had taste in cookery. But Coronado was not after evidences of civilization, but in search of gold, and he pushed hastily on. Two years of disappointment followed, until at length the perplexed and disheartened Spaniard went mad, and his party returned to Mexico. Meantime, in 1543 a voyage was made northward along the coast, which laid open to the Spaniards a portion of California. This was under the charge of Cabrillo, who went as far north as Cape Mendosino. He found it too cold to go farther. From this point the Spanish fleets, for long years after, took their departure on their journey to the East Indies. Other Spanish voyagers made much the same trip, but none of them discovered a seaport in California.

This, Sir Francis Drake, the English seaman, who has been written of in the first chapters of this book, did. It will be remembered that he passed through the Straits of Magellan and came up the Pacific Ocean in 1578. One of his vessels was lost in a gale, the second deserted him, and he was left to make his voyage alone in the *Pelican*. His crew suffered terribly from the cold, on reaching forty-eight degrees north latitude, although it was in the month of June. He hurried away from this discouraging port and landed in a "goodly bay," which some identify with the beautiful Bay of San Francisco.

When the Indians heard of the arrival of the white men, they gathered in large numbers to see them, and the King, a man of

dignified stature, came, with a guard of a hundred braves, to welcome him. In front of the King marched a tall man carrying a sceptre of black wood a yard and a half long. Upon it hung two crowns, and dangling from these were chains of bone. Each link was a mark of honor. All of the Indians wore skins, and the King wore rabbit's skin—a mark of royal distinction. Their heads were decorated with feathers of rare birds. They entertained Drake with a long ceremony, ending in a dance, after which they asked the Englishman to be King of their country. The crown was set upon Drake's head, and all the chains of honor hung about his neck. Drake thought it wise to accept these honors in the spirit which they were given, and took the country in the name and for the use of Queen Elizabeth. It must not be forgotten that this was away back in 1579. Then followed a wild scene in which all the common people yelled and howled, and tore the skin from their faces with their nails, meaning to offer sacrifice to their new and mysterious Governor. Drake and his friends made a visit into the interior, where the Indian villages were. They found the country fruitful, filled with game and excellently adapted for settlement. Neither Drake nor his men would have objected to lingering longer among these friendly tribes in a land of such unusual beauty, but their disabled ship was repaired and there was need for hastening back with reports of the voyage. A monument was left in the port composed of a copper plate, fastened to a wooden post. Upon this plate was engraved the right of Queen Elizabeth to the kingdom, the Queen's picture and Drake's arms. The Indians mourned exceedingly when Drake left them, and built bright fires on the cliffs to cheer his departure over the waters.

In 1581, Augustine Reyes, a Franciscan Father, went northward and rediscovered the pleasant land of which Coronado had written, and was able to guess at the site of the "seven cities." Reyes started thither, with two brethren of his order and eight soldiers, for the purpose of making converts to the Catholic faith among the Indians. But one of the friars was killed by the Indians, and the soldiers, fearing for their safety, deserted, leaving the two friars to go on alone. When the soldiers passed Santa Barbara, they confessed the state they had left the unfortunate Fathers in, and aroused the indignation of Antonio de Espejo, who hurried to their relief with a caravan of fifteen horses and mules and some Indian guides. Espejo discovered many interesting tribes of Indians who had progressed in the arts and industries to an unusual extent. Some of them wore cotton garments, striped with

white and blue. Others understood the tanning of leather so well that the Spaniards held it to be as fine as anything done in Flanders. The great rivers and mighty forests, the mountains and the fruitful plains delighted them, but they were obliged to press on after the priests whom they were hurrying to succor. In the country which they named New Mexico, they found people dressed in cotton and leather, with good boots and shoes. At last they learned that the poor Franciscan Fathers had been killed, and Espejo devoted himself merely to exploration, leaving a large part of his company in camp near the Tiguas tribe of the "sixteen towns." He found idols in some of the houses; umbrellas decorated with the sun, moon and stars were in use by one tribe, and many had wrought the precious metals into forms of ornament. Especially interesting was the town of Acoma, which was inhabited by six thousand Indians. It was built on a high cliff, fifty platforms in height, and reached by steps cut out of the rock. The water was drawn from cisterns. Of course no crops could be raised upon the site of this rocky city. The farms lay two leagues away and were irrigated by artificial means.

Espejo at length visited the country which Coronado had entered half a century before. Here he found Christians and some baptized Indians, who understood the Spanish language. This was the great province of Zuni, which still holds its name and keeps the old customs as Espejo saw them in the last half of the sixteenth century. After journeying still farther, Espejo came to rich silver mines, but it is not known in what direction he journeyed. When Espejo rejoined his party he found most of them determined to return to Santa Barbara. He, with eight soldiers, concluded to explore the river Del Norte. It was two years before he ended his journeyings.

Until 1595 the great western territory remained undisturbed. Then the Count Monterey, at that time Viceroy of Mexico, and Juan de Onate went into New Mexico to plant colonies in the valley of the Rio Grande. Sante Fe, which was one of Onate's settlements, was founded before Jamestown, and is, therefore, next to St. Augustine, the oldest town in the United States. This settlement had in its beginning one hundred soldiers and five hundred settlers, and the number continued to be about the same for a hundred years. Indian raids were not infrequent, and the people could offer but little resistance until 1692, when Diego de Barges established Spanish garrisons in the valley. El Paso, on the Mexican frontier, was one of Onate's settlements.

Farther west, on the ocean coast, Spain followed up the discoveries

of Drake. It is not necessary to mention each one of these. Spanish names were given to the coast, and Spain claimed it as her own, although she took but very languid interest in it. It was the Jesuits, anxious for the saving of souls, who finally settled upon the peninsula of California. Francisco Kino, a devoted brother of the Jesuit society, infused with a noble enthusiasm, undertook to Christianize the peninsula. A series of missions were founded by him, and in 1697 he succeeded in getting a mission built in lower California. On the west side of the gulf was Father Salvatierra, and on the east side Father Kino. These two men, both systematic and capable of clear leadership, constantly helped one another. The system of the Fathers was very complete. The Indians were taught the Spanish language, and were induced to attend religious services every day. Those who did so were supplied with rations. The sick, old and helpless were provided with food. All of the Indians were given coarse cloth, cloaks and blankets. The missionaries instructed them in the cultivation of their fields, but finding that the Indians would not harvest and preserve the crops, they themselves took care of them. Wine was one of the first products of California, but the Fathers soon found it was necessary to keep it from the Indians.

By the time that the missions had existed in California for a generation they were surrounded with a semi-civilized set of men and women who gave up the wild life of the forest for the more laborious and quiet one of the farms.

Lonely and desolate, the little missions stood out from the savagery of the villages. In them there were often but two Spaniards, a Father and a soldier. The missions were well built, with a touch of that Moorish architecture which the Spaniards had made their own. Not alone were the missions the schools, the churches and the depot for supplies, but they served for courts of justice as well, and any culprit was punished there according to the judgment of the Spaniards. The children were educated in reading, writing and singing, and many of them were sent to Soreto, the chief station. Such of these as showed unusual intelligence were made church-wardens at the various rancherios. One Father taught his Indians to spin wool and weave it, and he himself made the staffs, wheels and looms. This was opposed to the policy of Spain, which wished to force all her colonists to purchase manufactures direct from home. It was this same policy which kept the settlements of the Spaniards so far behind those of the English and French. Cortez tried to encourage manufactures in the colonies, but

his policy was overturned, and the people received from Mexico the cloth which had been made in Holland and sold in Spain. The Fathers continued to form new missions whenever some benefactor could be found who would give an endowment of \$10,000, \$6,000 of which was put at interest and devoted to the education and care of the Indians. Each Father kept a chronicle of all which happened to him, and these engaging narratives helped not a little in the collection of money in Mexico and Spain. The mines of Arizona began to be richly developed, and it is still possible to see the remains of old mining operations there. Every little while the Indians, who seemed so obedient and trustful, would uprise suddenly and war with each other in their old savage fashion. In their hearts they resented this easy conquest of the Spaniards. The eloquence of their orators was leveled against the woman-like patience with which the braves sat down to eat the bread of charity, and from time to time the well-fed proteges of the missions were lashed into insurrection. After the death of Father Kino, in 1711, the missions began to decay. He had baptized more than forty thousand infidels, founded numerous churches, and conducted valuable explorations.

Spain, herself, was losing her glory, and it was not strange that the little missions, to which she had always been more or less indifferent, should suffer early from her decline. After this comes a history of revolts, and at last, June 25, 1767, came the decree of the council chamber of Charles III for the expulsion of the Jesuits.

The land upon the Gulf of Mexico had not been entirely neglected by the Spaniards. In 1690 a mission was established at the spot where La Salle's unfortunate colony had been. Other missions and military posts were established about Texas and New Mexico. But in 1693 the Spaniards were driven from them by the Indians. However, there still remained, on the west side of the Rio Grande, the posts known as Presidio del Norte and El Paso.

In 1712, Louis the XIV gave the grant of Louisiana to Antonio Crozat, which included the land reaching to the Rio Grande on the west. Between this country and Mexico there has always been a brisk smuggling trade. The first Texas missions were founded by the Franciscan Fathers, who used much the same plan that the Jesuits had done farther west. When the war of 1718 was declared between France and Spain, the little settlements on these distant frontiers thought it behooved them to imitate the home countries, and war with each other. One large expedition was fitted out to move against the French settle-

ments of the Upper Mississippi. The Spaniards lost their way and fell in with some Indians who massacred them and took all of their arms. After this Spain made no other attempt to settle on the land of the Upper Mississippi. In 1728 the Spanish government transported four hundred from the Canary Islands to Texas. A portion of these settled at San Antonio, Texas, but the growth of Texas was very slow, and the deadly policy of Spain took the life from the colonists.

FOR FURTHER READING:

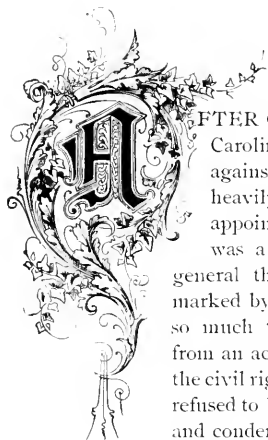
HISTORY—Bancroft's "History of California,"
Hittell's "History of San Francisco,"
Hep's "Spanish Conquest of America,"
Kip's "Early Jesuit Missions in North America,"
Curtis' "Children of the Sun."



CHAPTER XXXVII.

The Carolinas.

SIR NATHANIEL JOHNSON IN CAROLINA—STRATEGY AT FORT JOHNSON
—RELIGIOUS DIFFERENCES—MASSACRE OF 1711—UPRISING
IN SOUTH CAROLINA—THE YEMASSEES—THE BUC-
CANEERS—REBELLION AGAINST THE
PROPRIETORS.



AFTER Governor Moore's administration in South Carolina, which, through his ill-advised move against St. Augustine, plunged the colony so heavily in debt, Sir Nathaniel Johnson was appointed to office in Moore's place. Johnson was a man who had more of the instincts of a general than of a ruler. His administration was marked by one of those religious disputes which made so much trouble in all the early colonies. It arose from an act passed by his first assembly, taking away the civil rights from all who blasphemed the Trinity, or refused to believe in the divine authority of the Bible, and condemning them to three years' imprisonment. Following this, came a law which required every citizen who belonged to the assembly to conform to the religion of the Church of England. By this law every Puritan of whatever shade of belief was robbed of his civil rights, though these dissenters were far greater in number than the Episcopalians. This Episcopal minority, of course, represented the Lord Proprietors who governed the colony. The dissenters sent John Ashe to England to beg the protection of the Proprietors, but he got no satisfaction from them. Another agent, Joseph Boone, was sent to England to make an appeal to the House of Lords. They referred the petition to the Queen, with a prayer that the wrongs of the colonists might be righted, and Queen Anne declared the laws to be null and void.

Though Johnson was so injudicious a ruler, he had some qualities which were not to be despised. At one time, when he learned that an attack was to be made upon Charleston by the French and Spanish, he superintended a pretty piece of strategy, which is worth relating. On James Island, in Charleston harbor, Fort Johnson held a few men for the protection of the city. William Rhett was placed as admiral over the militia of the province, which, with guns and ammunition, was put on board six merchant vessels which were in harbor. These preparations had barely been completed when the invading fleet, consisting of a frigate and four smaller vessels, under the command of Captain Le Feboure, sailed up and demanded a surrender. The man who brought the demand was blindfolded and taken from fortification to fortification. In each one of these he saw a well-armed and uniformed force, and never guessed that the men in each fortification were always the same, and that they hurried quietly before his blindfolded eyes. He went back to his commander and reported the extent of the force. Rhett managed his little fleet of merchant vessels with such skill that Le Feboure was unable to make a landing, and in a few days the French retreated.

The religious differences of the colony were not easily quieted. In spite of the fact that John Archdale, the Quaker, was one of the Proprietors, the Friends were at one time refused seats in the assembly. The war of words between the dissenters and the Episcopalians was constant. These disputes led to serious political complications. After Johnson was removed, South Carolina was in doubt for some time as to who was really Governor, such misunderstandings and contentions were there. When the claimants for office tried to summon an armed force and to move against each other, the militia quietly refused to obey. It was not until 1713 that Charles Eden was appointed Governor by the Proprietors and that religious freedom was allowed to be the right of every man in the Carolinas. During the last four years the colonies had not only been rent by internal rebellion and bitter persecutions, but by savage wars with the Indians as well. In 1711 the Tuscaroras succeeded in uniting in North Carolina all of the smaller tribes, as well as the half-civilized Indians about the colonies, in a general conspiracy against the English. On an appointed morning a single war-whoop was given just at break of day and in every house the servants rose against their masters. All about the villages lurked bands of savages waiting to fall upon the settlements in an unguarded moment. Few Indian massacres were conducted with so much fierceness and



W. H. Harrison

decision. In most cases there was a blunder somewhere, but here, unfortunately, there was none. Many hundred were killed within that hour at day-break through all the settlements, and for three days the tide of murder swept on from south to north, stopping at last for want of more victims to kill. In all Indian warfare the burning of houses and destruction of property was as much a part of the fight as the killing of men. Governor Hyde begged Virginia and South Carolina for aid. Governor Spotswood, of Virginia, interceded with the Indians, but Governor Craven, of South Carolina, sent a body of militia and several hundred friendly Indians hurriedly through the wilderness to the aid of the sister colony. In an open battle the Tuscaroras suffered heavy loss. The distracted remnant of settlers in North Carolina kept shut up in their garrison. The crops they had planted with so much care were destroyed. Little was left of the pleasant farms and villages. The little store of wealth which had been accumulated through the patient years was gone, and in almost every family there was mourning for the murdered. Through the long winter of 1713 this remnant of a colony dragged out a wretched existence, owing what little life it had to the protection of the soldiers from the South. A treaty was made at last with the Indians, and the soldiers retired to their homes. When the Indians were freed from their presence they broke their treaty, and the following summer was spent by both the English and the Indians in preparations for a renewal of the war. At the close of the summer Governor Hyde died, and Colonel Pollock was chosen Governor. He used the best means in his power for the protection of his colony. Realizing its limited resources and how few men it had to defend it, he sowed division among the Indians, weakening their party. Help came both from Virginia and South Carolina, and in an attack upon the Indians, in the spring, many of them were killed and eight hundred taken prisoners and carried to South Carolina as slaves.

The next colony to suffer from the Indians was South Carolina itself. In the spring of 1715 there was a sudden uprising among the Yemassee, the tribe who had been the allies of the South Carolinians in their conflict with the Tuscaroras. As in North Carolina, a day was agreed upon, and the outbreak came with horrible suddenness. More than four hundred were murdered, and many hundred homes were burned. There was in the whole colony only one proof of friendship between the races. Sanute, a Yemassee chief, had a great reverence for a bonny Scotch woman who lived with her husband upon the frontier. After the habit of his race when they vowed friendship, he

had washed his face with scented water and crossed his hands upon his breast, vowing that he should eternally be her friend. When the massacre was agreed upon, he warned her, and she and her husband fled to the coast. An organized force was led against the Yemassee by Governor Craven, and the Indians were defeated, and pushed through the wilderness across the Florida border. The Indians were now practically driven from the Carolinas—a country full of traditions for them and for which they had bravely fought. All the lands which had been reserved to the Yemassee were taken possession of by the colony, but these the Proprietors wrenched from them for their own use, and the new emigrants, hastening over to the territory which was opened up to them, were ruined by the demands for rent and purchase money. Governor Craven, of South Carolina, was succeeded by Robert Johnson, a son of the former Governor, Sir Nathaniel Johnson. He took charge of the colony under great difficulties. The Proprietors had taken away all independent legislation from the assembly, and assumed the right to reject and repeal all laws as they saw fit. The revenue was taken off the imported British goods, which had been used for the support of the colony, and the pirates who lurked about the Carolinian coast had become so bold that it was necessary to incur the expense of open conflict with them. The vessels of these buccaneers were so well armed and manned that they were able to capture merchantmen within sight of Charleston. When any person fell into their hands they extracted a ransom from the government. The admiral of these rovers was the famous Blackbeard, who had a squadron of six vessels under his command. He and his dare-devil captains had a station at the mouth of Cape Fear river. From here they could sally out upon any vessels bound for Charleston, and thus seriously injure the commerce of the colony. William Rhett, who had so cleverly managed the little fleet of merchantmen at the time of the French invasion, was put in command of a ship sent out to capture Steed-Bonnet, one of Blackbeard's most dreaded allies. It had been thought almost impossible to take him, but Rhett attacked his pirate vessel with its crew of thirty, captured them and took them to Charleston, where they were hanged. Another of the pirate captains, Morely, angered at his companions' fate, soon after this sailed defiantly into the mouth of the harbor. Governor Johnson took command of his ship himself, and went out to meet him. The Governor's crew was triumphant, and boarded the pirate, killing every one except the captain and one of the crew. These, though bleeding with many wounds, still refused to surrender, and were taken to

Charleston and hurriedly hung, that the Carolinians might have the satisfaction of seeing them swing. A royal proclamation had been made some time before, promising pardon to all pirates who would surrender, and Blackbeard, with twenty of his friends, went to Governor Eden, of North Carolina, and took advantage of this proclamation. He rioted about the village for a time, and then took to his life on the sea again. Governor Spotswood, of Virginia, offered a large reward for his head. Two armed sloops were fitted out and sent after him. He heard of their coming and made preparations. His twenty-five men were ready to fight to the death. He boarded one of the sloops, which had got aground, with the expectation of making an easy victory, but a large reserved force of men who had been kept below, sprang upon the deck as the pirates poured over the sides. A hand-to-hand fight followed, and the two captains closed upon each other. After they had fired their pistols they fought with dirks, until Blackbeard fell. The successful Virginian party boarded the pirate vessels and made prisoners of the rest of the crew. A negro had been put with a fire-brand at the magazine, with orders from the captain to blow up the ship as soon as she was taken, but he was discovered, and the act prevented. Blackbeard's head was stuck upon the end of the bowsprit, and the young commander of the Virginian troops, Lieutenant Maynard, sailed proudly back into the Chesapeake.

South Carolina had just got this well off her mind and was freed from the depredations of the buccaneers, when she was threatened with Spanish invasion. Governor Johnson promptly called for money to prepare defences. The assembly said there was no money, and that the tax upon imports ought to be enough. The Governor reminded the assembly that the Proprietors had repealed the law. The assembly replied that they had nothing more to do with the matter. There was no Spanish invasion, as expected, but the difficulties between the Proprietors and the assembly had reached a climax. The people prepared for revolution, feeling they could stand the tyranny of the Proprietors no longer. Governor Johnson was held in respect and affection, in spite of the fact that he represented the hated Proprietors. His sincerity and good sense had won the hearts of the people, but notwithstanding this, they refused now to obey him or pay any attention to his orders while he voiced the will of rulers so tyrannical and unjust. The people elected a Governor for themselves—Colonel James Moore—and he was inaugurated on the same day that the militia was assembled for the revolution in Charleston. Governor Johnson had been at his plantation,

and when he came into Charleston he found the city alive with excitement. Drums were beaten about the streets, the ships were decorated with bunting, work was given up, and in the town square stood the militia of the whole province. Johnson tried to reason with the leading men. Some he indignantly reproved, and he ordered Colonel Parris, who was at the head of the troops, to disperse his men at once. This Parris refused to do, saying that he was there in obedience to the orders of the assembly, and when Johnson insisted upon having his commands obeyed, the soldiers were ordered to present their guns, and Johnson was told that he came nearer at the peril of his life. No one came to Johnson's side, and he saw that although he had not one enemy among those around him, the cause of the Proprietors was lost. He was led politely from the field by one of the leaders of the uprising, more popular than ever, perhaps, for the courage with which he had faced the loaded muskets of the troops. Both parties sent agents to England to present their sides of the difficulty, and in 1721 the government was taken away from the Proprietors and became a royal province. Sir Francis Nicholson, who seemed to be the favorite adjuster of difficulties in the colonies, was sent over by the King.

Queen Anne was dead, and George I had been King for over six years. Nicholson showed his usual good sense. He understood what the people needed, and was nothing if not a diplomat. He secured peaceful relations with both the Spaniards and the Yemassees. He signed treaties with the Cherokees and Creeks, on the west, and encouraged the building of churches and the laying out of parishes, sending to England for pastors. This was not so much that he had any personal religious enthusiasm, as that he knew the church was one of the cornerstones of government, and that it would greatly help the people in educational as well as religious and social affairs. There had not been a public school in the whole province when he came, but he constantly urged the necessity for them, and even used his private means, until at the close of his four years of administration a fair system of education had been begun. In 1729, both the northern and southern colonies were purchased by the crown, Lord Carteret refusing to sell his share, and retaining all the territory from $34^{\circ} 35'$ to the boundary of Virginia, and from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean. After this, North and South Carolina became legally two separate provinces. Burrington was the first royal Governor of North Carolina, but in a short time was displaced by Gabriel Johnson, who was appointed in 1734 and remained Governor of the colony for twenty years. In South Carolina, Robert

Johnson, the Governor who had been so determined under the rule of the Proprietors, was sent back with a royal commission. He was welcomed with enthusiasm, and for the four remaining years of his life worked to restore order, peace and prosperity. The colony was a mixed one, including English, French, Irish, Scotch and Spanish, differing in taste, religion and educational prejudices. Besides these, were about twenty-two thousand African slaves, not to mention the half-civilized Indians who hung about the colonies. There were a great many white slaves at this time, and from these degraded people came the "poor whites" of the South. With such a population as this, Governor Johnson's difficulties were many, especially as the debts of South Carolina were heavier than ever before. But the colony was now too strong for its life to be again in danger. Its prosperity was assured.

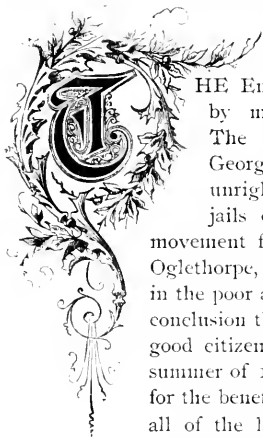
FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY**—Ramsey's "South Carolina."
Williamson's "North Carolina."
FICTION—W. G. Simms' "The Yemassee."
A. J. Requier's "The Old Sanctuary."
Matilda Douglas' "Blackbeard."

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

From Alleys and By-ways.

HOW GEORGIA CAME TO BE SETTLED—THE EMIGRANTS—THE WESLEYS
AND WHITEFIELD—THE MARCH OF THE SLAVES—THE
SPANISH ATTACK—GEORGIA AS A
ROYAL PROVINCE.



THE English colonies of the North had been settled by men who thought themselves righteous. The most southern colony of the English—Georgia—was settled by men who were manifestly unrighteous. They were taken largely from the jails of England. It came about through a movement for the reformation of English jails. James Oglethorpe, a humane gentleman, taking great interest in the poor and criminal classes of England, came to the conclusion that in another country they might be made good citizens. He procured a grant of land in the summer of 1732, which was granted to twenty trustees for the benefit of the poor of the kingdom, and included all of the land between the Savannah and Altamaha rivers. Oglethorpe was a gentleman of courtly manners and of very noble family. He was also a soldier of experience. Subscriptions were obtained through England for the benefit of this colony, and a company of people were carefully chosen from the destitute among the large cities. They were largely laborers out of employment, or debtors who had long been imprisoned by their creditors. Oglethorpe himself took charge of the first company of emigrants. This contained about one hundred and fourteen persons. The place which they selected for settlement was the site of the present city of Savannah.

Under the intelligent direction of Oglethorpe, matters went well with the settlement from the beginning. The people were divided into three parties. One prepared land for cultivation, a second felled trees, and a third built palisades. Until the town was built they lived in

tents. Their first care was to prepare a battery and a magazine. Laborers were brought from Charleston to help in building, and Oglethorpe laid out the plan of the beautiful city of Savannah, which has been preserved to this day, and which stands as a monument to his judgment and taste. Even the names of the streets are, in many cases, the same which he gave. In a short time other colonists were sent over from England. A treaty was made with the Indians, and local government was established. South Carolina was most friendly to the colony, and gave it much help. As soon as possible substantial dwellings were put up in place of the cabins first erected. The manufacture of silk was made one of the principal industries of the colony, and a light-house was built on Tybee Island, ninety feet in height. A company of Highlanders built Fort Argyle, on the Ogeechee river, as a defence against the Spanish. In the first year and a half the colony increased to nearly five hundred persons. Besides the poor of England, there came many Highlanders from Scotland, and they took most kindly to American life, being used to hunting and to the cultivation of a sterile soil. Their half-barbaric, picturesque garb, the music of their bagpipes, and their love for a life in the wilderness, won the admiration and friendship of the Indians.

There came, also, a company of Salzburgers to Georgia. These people were of a religious sect which had been persecuted for centuries. For a time a handful of them had found comparative peace in the valley of Salzburg, a province of Bavaria, but as they increased in numbers the wrath of the church was again turned against them, and they were driven from their homes, wives and husbands separated, and children taken to be raised in the Catholic Church. Twenty thousand of them found refuge in Prussia. Some fled to Holland and some to England. In England, they were kindly received, and it was thought that a safe asylum might be provided for them in the American colony. Fifty families, still living near Salzburg, accepted the invitation, and marched through Germany to the northern coast, carrying the young and old, with their few provisions, in rude carts. When they came through a Catholic district they were persecuted, but when the district was a Protestant one they were treated with great kindness, the peasants even carrying the women and children in their arms from one town to another. It was many, many weary months before they reached Savannah. Their industry and their long acquaintance with privation made them very valuable to a new colony, although, like the Friends, they did not believe in the taking up of arms, and would

furnish no men to the fighting force of the community. Lands were given them on the Savannah river, which they selected themselves, and named the place Ebenezer. Soon after their arrival, in the spring of 1734, Oglethorpe went to England, returning in the winter with about three hundred persons. With him came two young men by the name of Wesley, who stayed in Georgia but a short time. The people did not guess at that time the lofty strain of genius which ran in them, and which was to bring such powerful influence to bear on all Christendom in after years. John Wesley had a church at Savannah, and when he left, his friend, George Whitefield, who was to be no less noted than himself, took his place there. He and Wesley had been friends at Oxford. Oglethorpe brought with him on his second voyage two acts of Parliament. One of them prohibited the introduction of spirituous liquors in the colony and the other forbade the bringing of slaves. Unfortunately neither of these laws could be enforced. Whitefield fought the introduction of slaves for a time, but at length he himself yielded to it, and worked large plantations with them, using the money for the benefit of an orphan asylum which he built near Savannah. His influence had much to do with the introduction of slaves in Georgia.

A large part of the emigrants which Oglethorpe had brought over with him were put on the Island of St. Simons, at the mouth of the Altamaha river. The island was made formidable with forts and batteries. The Governor made an unfortunate move against St. Augustine, and was severely repulsed there. On his third visit to England he obtained a military commission which included South Carolina as well as Georgia. In the summer of 1739 he learned that the Spanish were trying to make allies of the Creeks, Choctaws and Chickasaws, who had formerly been friendly to the English. Zomo Chi-Chi, the friendly chief whom the first settlers of Savannah had used as an interpreter, begged Oglethorpe to attend a council three hundred miles northwest of Savannah, at which the chiefs were to gather. It took him one month to go and return, going through an unbroken wilderness, which no settler had previously entered. Not alone did he have the interminable forests of the South to pass, but the bewildering swamps as well. He met chiefs of numerous tribes, who could bring seven thousand warriors into the field, and gained such influence over them that it was a protection to Georgia through all his life, and indeed long after that useful life had ended. Shortly after this, the slaves of Carolina arose and began a march toward Florida, destroying the plantations and

killing the whites as they went, but getting badly intoxicated, they were surrounded by a body of militia and dispersed, a few being taken prisoners and others killed.

In 1742 the Spaniards made up their minds to retaliate for the English expedition against St. Augustine, and sent a fleet of thirty vessels, with a force of five thousand men, against Georgia. Oglethorpe got his Highland forces together from Darien, and all Indian allies who were in reach. A force of about eight hundred men were put in the field. Oglethorpe's action in this was gallant, though he only had a merchant vessel of twenty guns and two schooners of fourteen guns each. When the fleet of vessels sailed up St. Simons harbor, Oglethorpe himself took command of the vessels. He put eight schooners, with one man each, out for the purpose of harassing the vessels or of conveying himself from one place to another. He directed the batteries on shore as well. The fight lasted twenty hours, and the Spanish fleet fought their way through the fire of the batteries to the shore. Oglethorpe spiked his guns, destroyed all the provisions, and fell back upon Frederica, on St. Simons Island. The English were now behind those fine defences on which they had prided themselves. The head of the bay was difficult to navigate, and no ship could get through without "going about." As she did so, the batteries were so placed that she could be raked at once from three directions for three-fourths of a mile. The Spaniards dared not attempt this, and landed the fleet four miles below the town, with the intention of attacking the English at the rear with their force of five thousand men. A road ran southward from Frederica between a marsh and one of the tangled southern woods. At one place this road had a crescent shape, with a width of about sixty feet. The crescent ended in a wood, and here Oglethorpe left a detachment of troops, with some Indian allies. The Spaniards had no difficulty in driving this handful of men before them. Word was sent to the general, who hurried up, met the Spaniards at the entrance of the crescent and drove them back through the wood, into the open country beyond. Leaving a force of men there, he went back to Frederica, fearing an attack from the front. Finding all quiet there, he took a large reinforcement and started once more down the road. He met his men flying before the Spaniards. He turned them back and hurried on, for he knew that if the enemy once got through the narrow road to the prairie, Frederica could not long stand out against five thousand men. The Spaniards had marched on, and two or three hundred of them lay in the crescent of the road. The Englishmen

had fled before them. From the rear there was no danger of attack, and they quietly went into camp there, and began to prepare a meal. But the rear guard of the Highlanders, who had been so far behind that they could not aid their comrades, had leaped into the wood when the panic had seized their fellow-soldiers. They were hidden completely in the dense woods, and the Spaniards swept by them without dreaming that any man either could or would enter that dark tangle. With the Highlanders were a few Indians, who understood well this method of warfare. The Highlanders and Indians waited in perfect silence, not allowing one sound to escape them, until all of the arms of the Spaniards were stacked and they were resting on the ground and quietly taking their dinner. Then two Highland caps were raised in the air at different points. This was the signal for attack. Fire was poured in upon the Spaniards. The Highlanders were in no danger, for they could not be seen, and consequently could not be fought. The men in the roadway were falling with every shot. By the time Oglethorpe had reached the place the firing had ceased, and the Highlanders and Indians, shouting with triumph, stood in the midst of the Spaniards, hardly one of whom escaped. The Spaniards gave up the attempt of making an attack by land, and were easily defeated on the water, when, a few days later, an attempt was made to approach the town that way. The Spanish general, in the course of a few days, put his whole army on board his vessels, and went back to St. Augustine, persuaded that the English force must be a heavy one. Oglethorpe promptly manned his three boats and chased the fleet out of the sound.

In 1744, General Oglethorpe returned to England, but he never, to the end of his ninety-six years of life, lost his interest in the colony. After his departure from Georgia, William Stephens was appointed president of the trustees. The colony had not kept up its first happy promise of prosperity. The manufacture of silk and of wine had both been unsuccessful. So much time had been spent in active warfare that lands had been neglected, and the prohibition of slave labor caused much discontent. The trustees, feeling that they could not govern the people to the satisfaction of either party, gave back the charter to the crown. For ten years after it became a royal province its growth was slow. In 1754, when a convention of delegates from the several colonies met at Albany to form a union, Georgia was not represented.

FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Jones' "Georgia,"
Fairbank's "Florida,"
Carpenter's "Georgia,"
Jones' "Zomo Chi-Chi."

CHAPTER XXXIX.

The Cavaliers of Virginia.

CULPEPPER IN VIRGINIA—GOVERNOR EFFINGHAM—NICHOLSON AND
ANDROS—THE GROWTH OF INDUSTRIES—
MARYLAND—THE CLERGYMEN
OF VIRGINIA.



AFTER the triumph of Berkeley over Bacon in Virginia, the Royalists were very overbearing. Morals had become very loose. Every one in the colony worked for himself. There was an absence of that public pride, which was the strength of Connecticut, Rhode Island and Massachusetts. In 1675, Lord Culpepper came to Virginia with a commission for life over the province, to take up the affairs of the colony where the proud old Governor Berkeley had dropped them. Culpepper's only interests in the colony were personal ones. He oppressed the people with fresh taxes. There was an over-production of tobacco, the only staple of the colony, and therefore a steady lowering of prices.

Few towns sprung up, and the people living upon isolated plantations could not work in unity. The Assembly clamored for the rights of the people. They protested that a stop must be put to the over-production of tobacco. A few head-strong men undertook to put an end to this over-production by cutting the young plants. This may be known as the earliest American strike. Like most strikes, it only increased the difficulty. There was much distress, too, because the currency of the colony was not worth its face value in gold.

In 1684, Culpepper surrendered his patent and ceased to be governor. Virginia was once more a royal province. Lord Howard, of Effingham, became the ruler of affairs. He levied new duties, invented new oppressions, and hung the foolish plant cutters. Imprisonment was common for slight offenses. Effingham repealed many laws of the Assembly, and revived laws which were hateful to the colonies. Small

rebellions were numerous during his rule, and the slave element constantly increasing and growing more turbulent, threatened the lives of the free population with insurrection. Affairs were bettered some when Effingham went to England, and Colonel Francis Nicholson became



A CAVALIER OF VIRGINIA.

Lieutenant-Governor. Though Nicholson had made so foolish a figure of himself in New York, he seemed to have a healthy influence upon Virginia. More liberal, modest, and unselfish than before, he went to work with a will to straighten out the complicated affairs of the colony. He visited every part of his province, that he might become familiar with the people and their condition; he gave entertainments, and himself superintended athletic sports. By his enterprise, a great public road was built through the province, and a public post-office instituted. He decided that the best way to stop the over-production of tobacco was to encourage other industries, and he saw to it that flax was grown, leather manufactured, and that the trade with the Indians flourished. Drunkenness he made a misdemeanor, punishable with the stocks, and instituted an almost Puritanic mode of living among the careless, luxurious, and wine-loving Virginians. He aided in the establishment of William and Mary College, which had been established by the Rev. James Blair, the head of the Established Church of Virginia. This college was used then

mainly for the education of men intending to be clergymen, and here, at the time of Nicholson's endowment, there were over a hundred pupils. Though Nicholson only remained in Virginia about two years, he made many radical improvements. Sir Edmund Andros was sent over in his place. Like Nicholson, Andros had learned wisdom with experience. He came among the Virginians in a somewhat humbler frame of mind than he had when he was first set over New England. Perhaps

the stern lessons which the Puritans taught him was not forgotten, and in any event he was more likely to be popular among the Episcopal royalists of Virginia than among the Puritan Whigs of Boston. He brought with him the charter of William and Mary College and began a good work in the colony by completing the post-office which Nicholson had started. He also encouraged domestic manufacture and introduced cotton, although it did not succeed in Virginia. But the slave trade lay like a blight upon the colony, putting a check to true industry. A contest between President Blair, of William and Mary College, and Governor Andros resulted in the displacement of the latter from office, and Nicholson was called from Maryland to take his place.

When Nicholson left Virginia, after his first administration there, he returned to England, and when a revolution in Maryland had deposed the government of Lord Baltimore, thus becoming a royal province, Nicholson was made the second royal Governor. In Maryland, now the Catholics and now the Puritans were uppermost in political matters. In religious matters it was always liberal, and people of all faiths were welcomed there. The conflict between the Puritans and the Catholics was political, rather than religious. An armed revolution was brought against the Catholic government in 1681, and Baltimore's government was overthrown. The Protestant assembly took upon itself the direction of the affairs of the colony.

Nicholson ruled here with satisfaction until he was recalled to Virginia. He substituted the Church of England for the Catholic Church. This, it can easily be imagined, was a difficult matter. There was a great lack of clergymen in Maryland, and Nicholson had a considerable number brought over. Public worship was forbidden to the Catholics. The Puritans and the Quakers were not interfered with, although they were greatly discouraged. Nicholson had a school built in each county of the province, and a school embracing the higher branches, called King William's School, was opened at Annapolis, in 1694. Annapolis had been made the capital of the province by Nicholson. In a short time everyone of the thirty parishes had a small library, in each of which there were about fifty volumes. At Annapolis there was a larger library, containing eleven hundred volumes. All of these books were free to everyone in the colony.

When Nicholson, fresh from these labors, went to Virginia, he found that the colony had grown in his absence. It now had a population of forty thousand. This second rule was not so satisfactory to the people as the first one had been. The House of Burgesses, which represented the

people, had grown very strong. He had an open quarrel with the members because he desired that Virginia should contribute to the building of forts for the protection of the northern provinces against the Indians. The burgesses refused to give anything. Nicholson felt that the colony was disgraced by this refusal, and said so in terms more unmistakable than polite. He became unpopular, also, because he took away the power of the vestries in the churches. These vestries had the right of controlling, to an extent, the action of the clergymen. These clergymen, be it said, were rather a rollicking and prodigal set. Frequently they were not even as orderly in their private living as were their careless parishioners. Their drinking was notorious. When Nicholson was guilty of the error of taking away the powers of the vestries the people felt that they were at the mercy of a lawless set of leaders, and complaints were sent to England against the Governor. These complaints were not all of a public nature. Nicholson had, unfortunately, made himself ridiculous in his love suit to a lady who refused to marry him, and he threatened the lives of her father and brothers. A thing of this sort naturally made him many enemies. Before he was deposed he laid out the town of Williamsburg, which was made the capital of the colony, and here, in the second year of its settlement, was held the first commencement of William and Mary College. This was nearly sixty years after the first commencement day of Harvard College, in Massachusetts.

Nicholson was recalled to England, and for five years the colony managed its own affairs, under the council. Then Alexander Spotswood arrived, bringing with him the writ of habeas corpus. Governor Spotswood was still young. He was full of life and ambition, with an inborn sense of justice and a true appreciation of happiness. He set about immediately reforming the courts, and tried to regulate the taxes. He was interested in the colony, and assisted it by raising a large fund for its support. He established a school for the education of Indian children also. Young and adventurous, he was not willing to stay cooped up in the settled part of his province, but desired to go beyond those beautiful mountains which raise themselves in blue mists at the west. In August, 1716, he started from Germantown, on the Rappahannock, to cross the Blue Ridge. With him, on fine horses, were a company of gentlemen, filled with as much curiosity and gayety as himself. Troops of hunters and servants went with them, and liquors and provisions were carried upon a train of horses. Every day this gallant company marched and hunted. With their trumpets, their guns, and

their songs, they awoke for the first time the hoarse echoes of the mountains. They crossed beyond the dividing ridge of the mountains, where the waters parted, and took possession of the beautiful valley beyond. In six weeks they returned, having traveled more than two hundred miles. Spotswood, in memory of this charming expedition, founded the order of the Knights of the Golden Horseshoe, giving each comrade who had accompanied him a little golden horseshoe to be worn as a badge. But it was sixteen years after this before the Shenandoah valley, which he and his merry companions had visited, was settled; and then the intruders came, not from Virginia, but from Pennsylvania, and were constituted largely of Scotch-Irish Presbyterians. Germans from Pennsylvania also scattered themselves through this fertile country.

Spotswood secured a treaty with the Indians, which gave to the English all of the region east of the Blue Ridge and south of the Potomac. This treaty was of much value to Virginia. In 1722, Spotswood ceased to be Governor, but as a private citizen he was still valuable to the community. He found beds of iron ore on his forty thousand acres of private property, and he was the first to establish a furnace and foundry in Virginia. Following him came Hugh Drysdale. The building up of the valley beyond the Blue Ridge brought many emigrants direct from Germany, and in the first half of the eighteenth century the population of Virginia was doubled twice. A better class of men began to come, who desired liberty and independence rather than riches, and who were willing to work themselves, instead of depending upon the toil of unhappy slaves. The people who came now were of the middle classes, self-respectful, industrious, and temperate. They had neither the arrogance of those of gentle blood, nor the viciousness of those unhappy creatures dragged from the slums of London. A more vigorous religious life was apparent, too. Following Drysdale, came Governor Gooch, and he was in power when the great preacher, Whitefield, was welcomed on his first journey to Virginia. Governor Gooch, be it said, did not take part in this welcoming, but the people made up for his lack of enthusiasm. In 1736 a printing press was set up, and William Parkes published a weekly paper at Williamsburg. The colony was no longer made up entirely of plantations. Prosperous towns sprung up about the coast and the rivers. Norfolk, Fredricksburg, Falmouth, Richmond and Petersburg were founded and flourished. The life of the richer planters of Virginia was very luxurious. The women were renowned for their beauty and their coquetry. The men prided themselves upon their hunting and good fellowship. The entertainments of the day were cere-

monious and stately, in violent contrast to the simplicity cultivated in Massachusetts.

In Maryland, the government had once more passed into the hands of the Baltimore family. Now the Baltimores represented the Protestant faction, having seceded from the Catholic Church. Six Lord Baltimores ruled over Maryland, the last of them dying in 1771. Their rule had always been wise and manly, and when Maryland passed into the hands of the royal government it was in a prosperous condition. In 1750 the population was about one hundred and thirty thousand. Iron was being developed in the State, and a large number of furnaces and forges were working successfully. Woolen, linen, tanning, shoe-making and other trades were succeeding, but here, as in Virginia, too large a proportion of the people were slaves; there was an over-production of staples and an element of discontent.

FOR FURTHER READING:

FICTION—Caruther's "Knights of the Horseshoe."

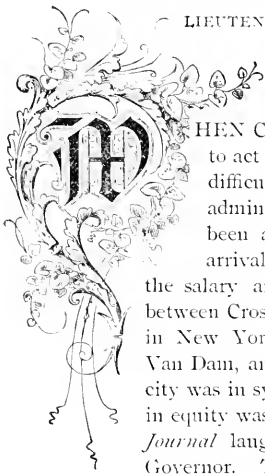


A MORAVIAN SETTLEMENT.

CHAPTER XL.

A Reign of Terror.

THE FIRST TRIAL FOR LIBEL IN AMERICA—THE NEGRO PLOT IN
1741—THE BURNING OF "QUACK" AND THE HANGING
OF URY—THE MINGLING OF DUTCH AND ENGLISH
IN NEW YORK—THE GOVERNMENT OF
LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR CLARK.



WHEN Colonel Crosby came to New York, in 1732, to act as Governor, his coming brought about a difficulty which was the only thing to make his administration memorable. Rip Van Dam had been attending to affairs before the Governor's arrival, and was asked to give an equal partition of the salary and perquisites of the office in the interval between Crosby's appointment and his actual appearance in New York. The popular party sympathized with Van Dam, and, as usual, the aristocratic portion of the city was in sympathy with the royal Governor. A suit in equity was brought about, and the *New York Weekly Journal* laughed in rather an indiscreet way at the Governor. Two ballads were printed whose humor was

considered to be of a libellous sort. It was decided that they should be burned in the public square by the common hangman, in the presence of the magistrates. The hangman burned them, but the magistrates refused to be present. The editor of the paper was arrested and brought to trial. The case was brought before the jury, and the prisoner was acquitted. It was held that the editor said nothing which was not true. It was perceived that to speak against people in power might not always be wrong, and that to tell the truth, however disagreeable, was a thing which should not be necessarily punished as an offense. This was the first trial of the kind in this country, and furnished a precedent which was long quoted.

Crosby only lived four years after his appointment, and George Clark, a member of the council, quietly ruled over New York for seven years. His administration was marked by one dark tragedy, for which he was not personally responsible any more than the city full of people about him. This was what is called the negro plot of 1741, when all New York went mad together. There were a few Spanish negroes in the place, who, though they were freemen in their own country, had been enslaved in New York. It was known that they were resentful, and when a large number of fires broke out about the city the blame was laid on them. The Governor's house was burned, and within a few days numerous other houses were found smoking. In most of the cases the fires were extinguished before they did much harm. But the people became excited over the matter, and when the crowd cried that the Spanish negroes had caused the fire, everyone was ready to take it up. It is true that the negroes had faithfully worked with the white men to extinguish the fires, but this was not thought of. All negroes found in the streets were arrested. Vague stories, lacking foundation, spread like wild-fire. It was thought that there was a plan to burn all of New York to the ground. A set of disreputable people who kept a saloon of the lowest order said that they knew of a conspiracy among the negroes. Among these people was one young girl, Mary Burton, a servant, who had been raised in the lowest surroundings. She was met by the dignified council and all of the most powerful men of New York, and urged to tell the truth. Anxious to save herself from any blame, frightened, and naturally vicious, it is not strange that she stated that there was a terrible plot to burn the city and to murder and rob its inhabitants. Every member of the bar wished to plead in behalf of the government, and not one person offered to present the cause of the friendless and quaking negroes who were imprisoned in the jail. The people demanded victims. They were willing to believe any story that might be told, even that of the lying, frightened child of fifteen. Others were found as willing as she to tell stories about the negroes, hoping to bring themselves into favor with the judge—for every doubtful person of New York was under suspicion. A few, indeed, thought their might be no truth in it and took pity on the poor negroes, but these were a hopelessly small majority. The negroes were wild with fright, and confessed to crimes which they had never committed. Standing on a pile of faggots which were presently to be lighted for their own consuming, it is not strange that they told of others implicated in the matter in the hope of saving themselves, but this it never did.

They said that a few negroes had intended to watch the doors of Trinity Church on some morning, and to kill the congregation as it came out; that they were then going to murder the rest of the inhabitants, assume rule, and select a king from among themselves. The court believed this ridiculous story. The most influential citizens of New York urged punishment, and in two or three months more than one hundred and fifty negroes were imprisoned. Over one hundred were convicted as conspirators, twelve of them were burned alive at the stake, eighteen were hanged, and seventy-two were transported as slaves to other countries. In the few cases where their masters came forward and protested their innocence, attempting to prove an alibi, the evidence was paid no attention to whatever. The terrified negroes were ready to confess to anything. One poor negro, named Quaek, admitted that he set fire to the Governor's house; that he took a brand from the kitchen fire and put it on a beam under the roof; that the roof did not catch fire, and that the next day he did the same thing, puffing at the brand until it flamed. The truth of the matter was, that a plumber had been up on the roof with an open furnace of live coals; that the wind was high and some sparks lodged in the shingles. As the excitement grew the people began to fear a Popish plot. They hunted the town over for Catholic priests, but found none. There was a rumor that priests were coming to New York in the guise of dancing-masters, school-masters, music-teachers, etc. One quiet school teacher, John Ury, was arrested on suspicion. Mary Burton, the child who had brought so much trouble on the negroes, said that he was one of the men in the habit of frequenting the place at which she had lived, and which was supposed to be the gathering spot of the conspirators. Though many protested that Ury was an honorable and quiet man of godly life, he was hanged. At last Mary Burton went too far, and began to implicate gentlemen who wore "ruffles," and who offered her presents of silk dresses. The judge and his friends thought this a good time to bring the examination to a close.

Although this childish and abject excitement spoke so badly for New York, it was, as a matter of fact, growing in power. It had become the key of the colonies, so to speak. Presbyterians had come from Ireland and Protestants from France, toward the end of the seventeenth century, and in 1710 three thousand of the Protestants who had fled to England, at the invasion of the Rhenish palatinate by Louis XIV, crossed to New York, settling upon the upper water of the Mohawk and Schoharie creeks. The Scotch, Scotch-Irish, Dutch and English

came in large numbers to the colony, spreading over the country and cultivating the land. School-houses were built among the villages. New York itself wore a most attractive appearance. It had a reputation for great cleanliness and order. The beautiful Holland tiles and bricks still held place in their house-building. The English lived with great luxuriance and wore fashionable clothes, but the Dutch clung for the most part to the quaint and picturesque costumes of their fatherland. The life for all was pleasant, and amusements were much more sought by the people of New York than by those of New England. In 1756 the population of New York City was twelve thousand. In 1738 Lieutenant-Governor Clarke founded a school for the teaching of Latin, Greek and mathematics. The other colonies were beginning to send their products to this port for shipment across the sea. The royalists and common people were constantly at verbal war with each other, but they united sufficiently to increase the mercantile value of their place. They reluctantly took part in the movement against the French or Indians, and gave money grudgingly. The Governor was of warlike spirit, and felt it a shame that the people under him were so reluctant to do their share of fighting for the defence of the confederation of the colonies, but the assembly and the militia united in disregarding his orders, and he realized, as did De Lancey, who followed him, that the time had come when concessions must be made, even by the King, to the stalwart burghers of the New World.

FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Brodhead's and O'Callaghan's "New York."

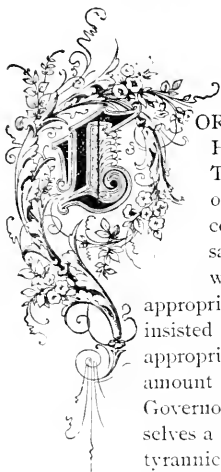
FICTION—F. Spielhagen's "Deutsche Pioniere."

J. F. Cooper's "Satanstoe."

CHAPTER XLI.

The Clash of Arms and Ideas.

LORD BELLOMONT'S RULE OVER NEW YORK, NEW HAMPSHIRE AND MASSACHUSETTS—DUDLEY'S RULE—THE FRENCH AND ENGLISH WAR OF 1702—TAKING OF PORT ROYAL—THE LUMBERERS' DIFFICULTIES IN MAINE AND NEW HAMPSHIRE.



LORD BELLOMONT'S rule over New York, New Hampshire and Massachusetts was a pleasant one. Though he was a member of the High Church of England, he deferred to the Puritanism of his colonies. The assembly refused to vote him a salary, as it had done with all of the Governors who preceded him. But the money which it appropriated for him was considerable. The assembly insisted that it should have the right to make such appropriations as it pleased from year to year. The amount depended entirely upon the popularity of the Governor. By this means the colonies kept to themselves a reserve which would send any obnoxious or too tyrannical ruler back to his own country. Governor Bellomont made an effort to check the unlawful priva-

teering of Rhode Island, for this little State had become the home of pirates. It was not unusual for some ship, hovering about the shore, to make out after a vessel at sea, capture it, bring it to shore, and appropriate its cargo. The harbor was never closed with ice, as was that of New York. The Gulf stream, flowing around the rocky shores of Rhode Island, kept it free through all the seasons, so it became the favorite resort of the sea rovers. Rhode Island had once had a poor reputation for harboring those obnoxious persons who dissented from the Congregationalism of Massachusetts; it now gained a worse reputation from the favor it showed to the pirates.

For many a long year Connecticut and Rhode Island quarreled with each other about boundary lines, and it was not until 1703 that Connecticut was willing to accept the Pawcatuck river as her eastern line. When Bellomont died, Stoughton became Governor for a short time, when he also died, and Dudley was sent to manage the affairs of Massachusetts. In May, 1695, that Board of Trade was organized in London which regulated the colonial and commercial affairs until the American Revolution. Its interference with trade and commercial liberty was a constant source of vexation to the people. The detested Randolph was again sent over as surveyor-general. Dudley tried to carry into effect an article of the new Massachusetts charter which gave the Governor the power to reject the nominations of the General Court. Cotton Mather headed a strong party, which included all the leading clergy of the province, to put Dudley from office. But Dudley also had a strong party among the royalists, and this dispute served to keep up that internal dissension which Massachusetts was never free from.

For five years there had been peace between the French and English, and those terrible Indian raids upon New Hampshire and the province of Maine had ceased. But in 1702 war was again declared between France and England, and the French and Indians of Canada once more felt free to vent their native hatred against the English colonies of America. Never had the Indians been more cruel, subtle and successful. The town of Deerfield, in Connecticut, was surprised by three hundred French and Indians one morning in February, 1704. The town had been guarded by sentries, for an attack was suspected; but the savages in the woods waited until they retired at daylight, and then rushed upon the people, who were just arising for the labors of the day. Fifty were killed, and a hundred of them were carried to Canada. Among these were children, who were given to the Jesuit priests that they might be raised in the Catholic faith.

Many of the young women were married to Indians, and with that began the race of half-breeds, which filled the northwest with such good trappers and guides. It was not infrequent for the children stolen in this way to acquire such a love for Indian life that they could never bring one back to the dull restraints of Puritan civilization. The free woods were dearer to them than the tedious town. The delights of the chase were preferred to the labors of the field.

The French claimed the whole of Maine as far as the Kennebec, and had established a trading and missionary post among the Norridgewock Indians, who dwelt among the upper waters of the river. The

French and Indians united in their efforts to keep the English east of the Kennebec, and every English fishing vessel found in Canadian waters was seized upon by the French men-of-war. Governor Dudley saw with apprehension the growing enmity of the Indians, and asked the Norridgewocks to meet him in council. The Indians did so, promised friendship, and helped in the building of two great cairns of stone, which was a sign of lasting friendship. All of the time that the Indians were feigning to be in such an amiable mood, they were preparing to seize the Governor and his suite and give them into the hands of the French. The plan was not carried out, because a French party expected did not arrive in time. In less than six weeks after this an attack was made upon the settlements between the Kennebec and the Piscataqua. All over the province the people hurried to the garrison houses. The fields were no longer worked, except under the protection of a force of armed men. The settlers armed themselves and went in pursuit of the Indians, but could not find them. Several of these unsuccessful tramps were made upon snow-shoes through the unbroken snow of the wilderness. Colonel Church, the celebrated Indian fighter, came up from Massachusetts with over five hundred men to protect these northern settlements. But aside from destroying some villages and killing a few of the enemies in chance engagements, he did little.

In the midst of winter the New Hampshire men fell upon the Indian village of the Norridgewocks, burning the French chapel and the wigwams. This made the Indians more unrelenting than ever. Within a few months they attacked many of the settlements of Maine, New Hampshire and Massachusetts. The difficulty then, as in all Indian warfare, was that the Indians would never meet their enemies in open field, and more danger and expense was encountered in finding them than in fighting them. A high price was paid to everyone who brought in an Indian scalp to headquarters, a man's scalp being worth one hundred pounds, and that of a child or woman fifty pounds.

Dudley was firm in his purpose to move against Canada and conquer it. This seemed to him the only way of freeing the colonies from their enemy. Colonel March was sent with a force of a thousand men, in 1707, to reduce Port Royal, in Nova Scotia. All through the winter and the spring the men fought in vain. They had been reduced from one thousand to two hundred in number, principally from the hardships of the winter in that latitude. Then came Nicholson's campaign with the New York men, which also failed. In 1710 the place was taken by five regiments of troops which sailed from Boston

harbor. General Nicholson, of New York, commanded the expedition. Only forty lives were lost among the English, and Nova Scotia ceased to be a French province.

In 1714 Governor Dudley was removed from office. The Whigs had grown to be the stronger party, and they declared that the office of Governor was vacant. Following him came Colonel Burgess, who sold his commission to Samuel Shute. At the time Shute assumed authority Massachusetts contained ninety-four thousand inhabitants. It had one hundred and ninety vessels. In the fisheries were one hundred and fifty smacks. Manufactories of many sorts were flourishing to the great vexation of the English, who tried in vain to keep down colonial industry.

About this time inoculation was first introduced in the colonies. Boston had suffered frightfully from small-pox. At three different times it had raged in the city. When vaccination was introduced by a physician named Boylston, it was fought not only by the doctors, but by the ministers as well. Cotton Mather was one of the few who encouraged the brave physician.

Shute had the same trouble in Massachusetts which his predecessors had had. The assembly refused to vote him a fixed salary, and this, as usual, was made the subject of many quarrels. The currency of the colonies had fallen far below par, and the financial condition was generally bad. Upon the north the Indians were constantly intrigued. The country was likely at any time to be plunged into continuous war. In matters of theology there was less sternness. Newspapers were becoming more common. Jonathan Edwards was writing his books on Calvinistic philosophy, and following him were a number of theological writers for whom he furnished inspiration. Increase Mather, the father of Cotton Mather, did not cease, even in his old age, to write religious pamphlets. Benjamin Franklin at this time was writing with versatility and vigor. A few years later than this, William Livingston, a journalist, and Governor of New Jersey, wrote a poem on philosophic solitude. William Smith, at one time president of William and Mary College, wrote an excellent history of the first discovery and settlement of Virginia. This was published in 1747. Cotton Mather, of course, expressed in newspaper and pamphlets his vigorous and combative ideas on the subjects of the day.

The lumberers of Maine and New Hampshire suffered great injustice at this period from the King's surveyors, who went through the forests selecting the best of the trees and marking them with a broad arrow.

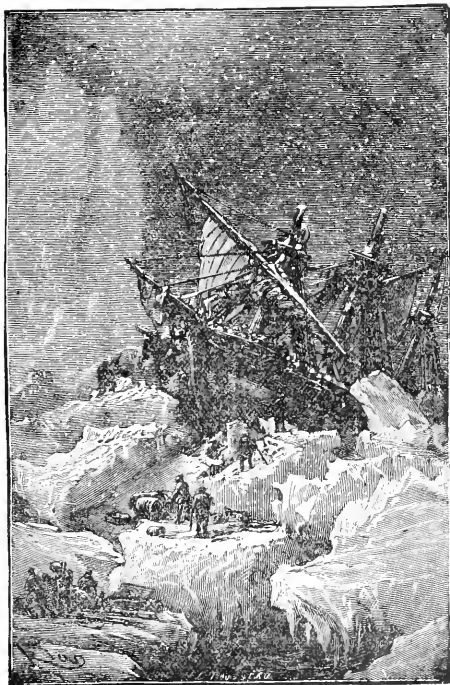
These the settlers were not allowed to touch. The farmers had a legal right to the land on which these trees stood, and they resented bitterly the stealing of their property. They were also kept from shipping timber to foreign countries—a matter which they felt concerned no one but themselves. In 1718, a number of Scotch Presbyterians came to New Hampshire. They introduced the manufacture of linen, the spinning of wool and the cultivation of the potato. In 1723 Shute left for England, and Wentworth became Governor of New Hampshire. The year before this the third Indian war had broken out in the northern provinces.

FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Drake's "Indian Wars."

Cotton Mather's "Magnalia."

Thornton's "Historical Relations of New England to the English Commonwealth."

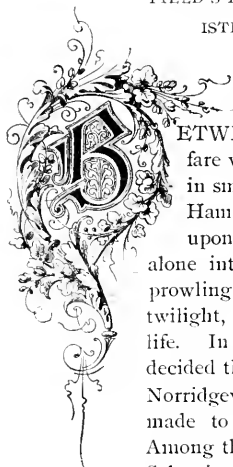


FROZEN IN.

CHAPTER XLII.

“Americans Are Born Rebels.”

EXPEDITION OF MAINE AND NEW HAMPSHIRE AGAINST THE NORRIDGEWOCKS—THE COMMAND OF CAPTAIN JOHN LOVELL—
WILLIAM DRUMMER IN MASSACHUSETTS—WHITE-
FIELD'S REVIVAL AND SHIRLEY'S ADMIN-
ISTRATION—LOUISBURG—THE
SURRENDER.



BETWEEN the years 1722 and 1724 a harassing warfare was kept up by the Indians. The savages crept in small bands about the frontiers of Maine and New Hampshire, falling, at the most unexpected times, upon unprotected homes. If a woman ventured alone into her yard, she was apt to be seized by the prowling Indians. A man journeying home in the twilight, knew that he did so at the imminent risk of his life. In 1724, Massachusetts and New Hampshire decided that an expedition must be sent out against the Norridgewock Indians. Twice before attempts had been made to break up the settlement of these Indians. Among them was a brave and determined man, Father Sebastian Rasle, a French priest who had gained immense influence over the Indians. He had lived among them thirty-seven years, and though he was a scholar, dropped his own language for that of the Norridgewocks and adopted their manner of living. The Indians loved him with all the intensity of their wild natures and were willing to meet any danger in his defense.

The Englishmen knew that if they wished to succeed in subduing the Indians, they must first capture Rasle. Twice they had failed. On the 12th of August, 1724, they succeeded. Two hundred Englishmen rushed upon the Norridgewock village when most of the warriors were absent. Such as escaped from the rifles and swords fled into the woods, and Father Rasle, in attempting to turn the attention of the

enemy from these flying women and children, was himself killed. The Englishmen stuffed his mouth with dirt and hacked his poor old body horribly. It wanted only this to inflame the Indians. Captain John Lovell organized an expedition which started in April, 1725, against the Pequawkett Indians, of Maine. The Indians lay in ambush for Lovell, and he and eight of his men were killed. The remaining twenty-three retreated under cover of night to the stockade, taking with them the men who could walk. One brave-hearted fellow, Lieutenant Robbins, who was mortally wounded, asked that a musket be left beside him so that he might have one more shot before he died. The men, after their weary march, found the stockade deserted, and in continuing their march homeward, some of the wounded died on the way. There were few left of the Pequawkett Indians.

But the English saw that yet sterner measures must be taken. They concluded, therefore, to move against the French, without whom the Indians might have lacked the courage to keep up their continuous fighting. Some commissioners were sent to the French Governor to inquire into his reasons for disturbing the treaty between France and England. The Governor was entirely under the influence of the Jesuit priests, who believed that it was to the glory of their religion to fight the Protestant Englishmen whenever they could. The commissioners succeeded only in getting the Governor to procure the release of some captives. A treaty was made between the English and the Eastern Indians in 1725, and for twenty years there was comparative peace. Thus closed the third Indian war.

New Hampshire was very anxious for a Governor of her own, who should in no way be beholden to Massachusetts authority. It was not until 1740 that she succeeded in getting the consent of the Crown to such a measure and that the boundary line which divided her from Massachusetts was definitely decided upon. Benning Wentworth, a son of Lieutenant-Governor Wentworth, was made the first Governor. He brought to his office all of the dignity which the New Hampshire people could have desired. With a troop of guards about him he rode in a pretentious coach, and lived in a house which, for those days, was little less than princely. The story of how he married pretty Martha Shortredge, one of his servants, is told so well by Mr. Longfellow that it would be foolish to repeat it.

In Massachusetts, William Drummer, the Lieutenant-Governor, was looking after the forces of the colony while Shute returned to England. Following, came Burnet, who had some bitter quarrels with

the assembly on the old question of a fixed salary. In 1730 Jonathan Belcher was sent out from England as Governor. He refused to accept the grant of money voted him by the assembly, and dismissed the house. This had no effect upon the people, and at length the King was obliged to yield the point and consent that Massachusetts should do as she pleased about the payment of Governors.

This was one of the strongest steps toward national independence—it was the greatest concession which the Crown of England had yet made. William Shirley who succeeded him in office, was much liked. He was the first of the royal Governors who succeeded in keeping up cordial relations with the people. Whitefield's great religious revival, which was shaking New England from its foundation, may have had something to do with these amicable relations. It may seem surprising that there was much need for a revival of this sort in Puritan New England, but the truth was that the people had begun to feel the reaction which naturally followed in the wake of religious discipline so stern as that the early Puritans imposed. People had grown indifferent and worldly, but their religious traditions made their remorse all the more sharp, when they were awakened to a sense of their falling-off by a man of Whitefield's eloquence. The religious excitement grew so high that even the coldest could not stand out against it. The more sensible people did not approve of this excitement, and thought it was doing great harm to the nervous and impressionable.

In 1744 the French and English in the old country became involved in another war. The Governor of Breton, as soon as he heard of it, moved against a settlement of English fishermen on the island of Canso. The French had been very jealous of the English fishermen, and were glad of an excuse for striking a blow at them. The settlement at Canso was destroyed and the men sent to the French fortress at Louisburg. Governor Shirley at once began preparations for war. He made up his mind to take Louisburg. This was the strongest fortress in America. It had been twenty-five years in building, and cost France thirty millions of livres. At the southeastern point of Cape Breton was a walled town, two miles and a half in circumference. The stone rampart was over thirty feet high and in front of this ran a ditch eighty feet wide. The harbor was defended by a battery of thirty 28-pounders. Upon a little island just opposite was a battery of still larger guns. The town was entered over a draw-bridge which was guarded by a circular battery of thirteen 24-pounders. The batteries and six bastions could mount one hundred and forty-eight cannons.

Shirley's preparations were made in secret. Only the New England troops consented to join the enterprise. Shirley took with him 4,500 men. Whitefield encouraged the expedition, and his influence was very valuable. Colonel William Pepperell was persuaded by Whitefield to take command of the expedition. The French heard nothing of the matter. All over the provinces a day of fasting and prayer was held. The troops met on the island of Canso; then, on April 29, 1744, they sailed for Cape Breton. A part of the English landed and set fire to some large warehouses filled with spirits. The smoke, drifting inland, so frightened the French that they spiked the guns of their battery at the bottom of the harbor, and taking boats, retreated to their walled town. Thirteen men who were reconnoitering found that the battery was deserted, and took possession. As they had no flag with them, one of the soldiers went up the flag-staff with a red coat in his teeth and nailed it up, that the French might know they claimed possession. The French attacked them, but were held off until reinforcements came up, when they again retreated. On May 5th, Pepperell threw up three batteries near the city. Guns and ammunition had been dragged through the swamps during the past fourteen days, and these were hurried into the batteries. Another battery was thrown up within a short distance of the draw-bridge, but the town was not easily forced. Pepperell knew that the island battery must be taken. This could only be done by sending a fleet up the harbor. Commodore Warren, who was cruising around outside of the bay, had captured a French ship having sixty-four guns, six hundred men, and a quantity of military stores on board. From the men on the captured ship, the English learned that the French were expecting a large reinforcement. The English decided to move at once. Pepperell tried a night attack with his scaling ladders, but his men were repulsed with a loss of sixty killed, and one hundred and twelve taken prisoners. The siege was still continued from the batteries. Pepperell was getting very short of ammunition, and some of his best guns burst. By the first week in June, fifteen hundred of his men were sick. Commodore Warren kept the French from carrying the news of the siege to Quebec. But the French were not alarmed, and felt no great need of reinforcement. They were well-trained soldiers; their enemies were farmers and mechanics, many of whom knew little about the use of their fire-arms. Pepperell built another battery within range of the island battery in the harbor. He had nearly ruined the draw-bridge battery by this time. Commodore Warren and General Pepperell decided to make an attack

together. Warren's fleet was drawn up in line and the land forces were put in a position to attack. This was the 15th of June, 1745. The French lost heart. They asked that hostilities might be suspended and terms of capitulation made. On the 17th of June, Pepperell marched into the fortress at the head of his plucky men. Governor Shirley hastened up and was given the keys of the place by the general. Six hundred and seventy regular troops, thirteen hundred militiamen, six hundred sailors and two thousand inhabitants were sent to France, The English had lost one hundred and thirty men. The French lost three hundred. General Pepperell was made a baronet, and was the first American to receive that honor. Warren was made admiral. Pepperell was also given high honors in the English army and presented with a table of silver and a service of plate by the city of London. For a year Louisburg was garrisoned by New England troops.

FOR FURTHER READING:

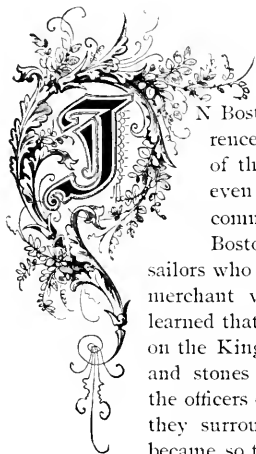
HISTORY—Leaky's "England in the Eighteenth Century" (Chapter on Whitefield.)

POETRY—Whittier's "Mogg Megone,"
Whittier's "Mary Garvin."

CHAPTER XLIII.

"They Nurse Treason With Their Milk."

THE GROWING SPIRIT OF INDEPENDENCE—THE FIRST EXPEDITION
AGAINST FORT DU QUESNE—THE COLONISTS FOR AGGRES-
SION AND OFFENSE—BRADDOCK'S ILL-FATED EXPEDI-
TION—GEORGE WASHINGTON'S FIRST AP-
PEARANCE—BRADDOCK'S DEFEAT
AND DEATH.



IN Boston, in the year 1747, there was an occurrence which marked the growing independence of the colonies, and showed how near they were, even then, to revolution. Commodore Knowles, commanding an English man-of-war, sailed into Boston harbor, and to supply places of some sailors who had deserted, he took a press-gang from the merchant vessels of Boston. As soon as the people learned that some of the Boston boys had been forced on the King's ship, they armed themselves with clubs and stones and hurried to the Governor's house, where the officers of the ship were being entertained. All day they surrounded the house, and in the evening they became so threatening that it required the utmost efforts

of the Governor and other influential citizens to keep them from violence. Even then they sent brickbats crashing through the windows of the council chamber, and demanded that every officer in town belonging to the fleet should be seized and held till the Boston boys were released. The militia was ordered out next day by beat of drum, but the drummers were in full sympathy with the kidnaped sailors, and refused to obey orders. The mob was made up mostly of mechanics and laboring men, and by their authority alone the officers of the ship were held in custody for three days. Commodore Knowles threatened to bombard the town if they were not released. Governor Shirley,

disgusted with the disorderly conduct of the citizens, went to the castle on the harbor that he might be out of a town where law was so disregarded. The General Court passed a series of resolutions which expressed sorrow for the behavior of the citizens, but declared that the House would exert themselves to redress their grievances. The militia came out promptly, ready, and perhaps even anxious, for conflict. Governor Shirley returned to the city, and the Boston sailors were exchanged for the British officers of the man-of-war. When Knowles sailed out of the bay, everyone in Boston gathered on the wharves and shouted at the discomfiture of the Commodore, who went back to England with an appreciation of the fact that the people in the colonies would do pretty much as they chose.

In 1748 a treaty was made between France and England which returned to France the fortress of Louisburg, which the English had so gallantly taken. There was not a man in the colonies who did not feel this to be a personal insult. It seemed as if the mother country set a low price upon the lives of her subjects. The engagement had plunged the colonies heavily in debt, also, and it was some time before Parliament voted the money to pay it. The treaty between the countries in the Old World had little effect upon the colonies in America. Hostilities were kept up on the border constantly, and when open war was resumed, in 1755, there was but little change in the attitude of the French Canadian and the English settlements. The French had built a chain of military posts along the great lakes and upon the highways of the river system. About these grew up little settlements. They even commanded a part of the Mississippi. The English were pushing their settlements westward, and in 1748 the Ohio Company was formed, which made use of the river communication by the Potomac and the eastern branches of the Ohio. A road was built over the mountains from Cumberland to Pittsburg, and exploring parties were sent out in 1750 and 1751, under Christopher Gist, who was surveyor of the company. In 1753, Major George Washington, a young Virginian, was sent out with Gist and others to visit the French forts which were encroaching upon the land which the English considered their own. The reports which he brought back in January, 1754, determined Virginia to fit out an expedition immediately. This was done. Washington was made second in command under Colonel Joshua Fry. The French were under Contrecoeur, who soon met a detachment of the English, drove them from the fort which they were building and occupied it himself. Washington, who had command of the main body of the



John Tyler

army, had a gallant engagement at Great Meadows, but was defeated and forced to surrender.

It had been proved that the colonies could not work independently. Benjamin Franklin and other of the wisest men of the colonies thought it was best to have a union. Congress assembled at Albany. Massa-



GEORGE WASHINGTON IN HIS YOUTH.

After the painting by C. W. Peale, and the engraving of J. W. Paradise

chusetts Bay, New Hampshire, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New York, the Jerseys, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia and North and South Carolina sent delegates. Chiefs from six nations also met there. This congress wished to meet annually, but the Board of Trade in

London would not permit it, thinking that it gave too much power to the colonists. In the convention it was agreed that war with Canada was necessary.

In 1754, Edward Braddock was made Commander-in-chief of all the fortresses in North America. Six thousand regular troops were given by the Crown, ready for service, as well as the money for the purpose of raising a colonial army. It was Braddock's intention to march against Fort Cumberland. Unfortunately, Braddock started from Virginia, because the road had already been built from there. But this made his march an exhausting and expensive one. He did not understand the nature of warfare in America, although he was a man of much experience and bravery. He was used to the well-regulated warfare of Europe, and could not, or would not, understand the savage methods which the frontiersmen used, owing to the fact that the Indians were always allies with them and they had no choice but to employ their methods. Braddock had one thousand regular soldiers, thirty sailors, twelve hundred provincials, a train of artillery, and wagons and horses which Benjamin Franklin had procured for him, beside the brave, friendly Indians. This line stretched along the narrow road. Had the Indians chosen at any time to attack it, as it wound its way through the great forest of white pines and the desolate mountains, it could have cut it into a dozen pieces.

Washington was sent ahead with twelve hundred men, about half of the force, leaving the rest with the baggage and the horses at Little Meadows. There were not more than a thousand men under Contrecoeur holding the French fort. Contrecoeur thought that it might be safest to surrender at once, but De Beaujeu, one of his captains, asked permission to lay an ambuscade for the British. The Indians put on their war-paint and followed him. The Frenchmen were wild with enthusiasm. Braddock, proudly confident of his strength, moved on. Washington said afterward that he never saw so beautiful a sight as the British troops made on that morning when they were ordered as if on dress parade, and with their flying colors, their martial music and glittering uniforms, hastened toward the fort. Suddenly Beaujeu, dressed in a French hunting dress and wearing a silver gorget, bounded down hill. Behind him came the French and Indians. At a signal the Indians disappeared. The French fired upon the English, then all about from the hollows and the woods came the fearful shrieks of the Indians. The English stood steady in a compact body and returned the fire. Beaujeu was killed, but his men, fighting from behind trees and

in ravines, worked terrible destruction among the Englishmen, who were fighting after European methods on the clear ground. Washington wanted Braddock to allow the men to use the methods of the natives, but this was not soldierly, according to Braddock's idea, and he would not permit it. Braddock had four horses shot under him, and was finally wounded himself. His army beat a wild retreat. A few faithful friends carried him with them. He died, giving up his command to Washington, and was buried at Great Meadows. The army marched to Philadelphia.

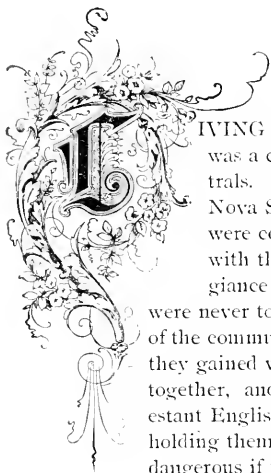
FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY**—Spark's "Life of Washington."
Columbus' "Life of Washington."
Parkman's "Pontiac."
FICTION—C. McKnight's "Old Fort Du Quesne."
Wright's "Marcus Blair."
Thackeray's "Virginians."

CHAPTER XLIV.

Desolated Acadia.

FRENCH AND ENGLISH SETTLEMENTS IN NOVA SCOTIA—THE RIVALRY
BETWEEN THE SETTLEMENTS—COLONEL WINSLOW
DRIVES OUT THE ACADIANS—THE PATHETIC
EXODUS—PERSECUTION OF THE
EXILES.



LIVING upon the basin of Minas, in Nova Scotia, was a company of people called the French Neutrals. They were British subjects, for at this time Nova Scotia was an English possession, but they were constantly suspected of being in sympathy with the French and would take no oath of allegiance which did not contain a proviso that they were never to take up arms against France. The people of the community were very industrious and frugal, and they gained wealth rapidly. Their religion held them together, and kept them from mingling with the Protestant English. The French and the English united in holding them in suspicion, feeling that they must be dangerous if they would give the allegiance to neither one nation nor the other. England was anxious to have Nova Scotia, or Acadia, settled with hearty British subjects, and in 1749, Colonel Edward Cornwallis led an expedition of nearly two thousand five hundred persons into Chebucto harbor and settled the town of Halifax. The nearest settlement was that of the French, on the basin of Minas. A little cattle path ran through the woods for twenty miles, connecting the two towns.

The garrison was removed from Louisburg, and assisted in the work of the young settlement at Halifax. The English imagined that their French neighbors were setting the Indians upon an attack upon the colony, and all through the winter of 1749 the people lived in fear of

an attack. There was also a French settlement at the mouth of the St. John, and it was feared that the two colonies would unite in a move against the English. To avoid such danger, the English decided that the people of Grand Pre must be made to take a complete oath of allegiance or else be removed altogether from communication with the French. After several years of suspicion and dissatisfaction a crisis was reached in 1755, when the people of Minas begged to have the arms, which had been taken from them, restored. There was a rumor that a French fleet was in the Bay of Fundy and that the Acadians intended to join the forces and attack the English garrison. The Governor ordered the French inhabitants to send delegates to Halifax for the purpose of giving the oath of allegiance. They refused to take it. It was therefore decided that the French inhabitants should be sent out of the province. An expedition was sent from Massachusetts, under the command of Edward Winslow. The French fortifications were taken, the Acadian Indians disarmed, and some of the Acadians pressed into English service. The farmers of Grand Pre were then asked to meet the English in the little church at 3 o'clock in the afternoon to hear what the English officers had to impart to them. The old and young men, and all the boys of ten years of age, were required to be there. They assembled, unsuspectingly, to the number of four hundred and eighteen. The church was put under guard. Colonel Winslow told him that it was his Majesty's instructions and orders that all lands and tenements, cattle of all kinds, and live stock of all sorts, were forfeited to the Crown. Only their money and household goods were allowed them. It was promised that families should be kept together, and that removals should be as easy as it could be made. The poor French farmers were surrounded by troops, and their prayers and protests were of no avail. The men were kept in the church for some time, waiting for the arrival of the vessels which would transport them. When they came, all the young unmarried men were placed upon the vessels first, then all of the young married men. Only the very young or the very old were left on shore. There was no chance for a revolt. It was many weeks before the rest of the transports arrived in which the families were to be placed. In the meantime, the unhappy women spent their days in packing up their goods and arranging for departure.

Colonel Winslow grew tired of his bitter task. The weeping of the women worried him, and their prayers were harder to face than the fire of an enemy would have been. On the 21st of October the remaining transports arrived and the people were embarked. There were at least

two thousand of them, possibly more. The exiles were scattered through a number of the colonies. Some of them returned to France. There was a colony planted in Louisiana, and a few returned in time. In Massachusetts, they were persecuted. The children were taken from their parents and driven from town to town. Everyone refused to care for them.

No doubt the Puritans thought that they were serving the Lord in his persecution of the Roman Catholics. In Pennsylvania, the exiles were distributed among country towns and provisions were made for them from time to time. They were always gentle under the wrongs which were heaped upon them.

FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Haliburton's "History of Nova Scotia."

FICTION—Mrs. Williams' "The Neutral French."

Haliburton's "The Old Judge."

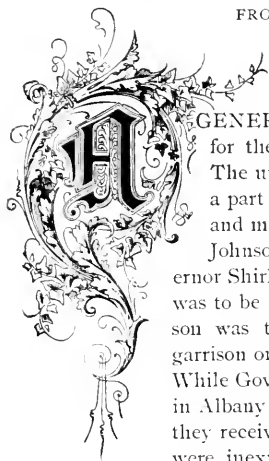
De Mille's "The Lily and the Cross."

POETRY—Longfellow's "Evangeline."

CHAPTER XLV.

The Lion or the Lilies.

OPERATIONS AGAINST THE FRENCH IN THE NORTH—THE BATTLE AT
BLOODY POND—THE FRENCH TAKE FORTS OSWEGO AND
WILLIAM HENRY—THE ENGLISH RETAKE LOUISBURG—
THE BATTLE OF CARILLON—THE ENGLISH
RETAKE OSWEGO AND CAPTURE
FRONTENAC AND DU
QUESNE.



THE GENERAL plan had been laid out by the English for the reduction of France in the New World. The unfortunate expedition of Braddock was but a part of this. He was to take Fort Du Quesne and move on to Niagara. Governors Shirley and Johnson met with their forces at Albany. Governor Shirley was to move against Niagara, where he was to be joined by Braddock's men. General Johnson was to move against Crown Point, a French garrison on the southern shore of Lake Champlain. While Governors Shirley and Johnson were waiting in Albany for the arrival of the last of their troops, they received word of Braddock's disaster. The men were inexperienced and impatient. Fighting, they could understand, but waiting and planning, which is so large a part of the success of war, was distasteful to them. Shirley was obliged to wait so long before making his attack upon Niagara that a fall storm set in. Many of his men deserted him, and he thought it best not to venture upon so long a march, amidst the inclemency of the coming weather, with a reduced force of men. He learned, also, that the French, under Baron Dieskau, were intending to attack Oswego. He strengthened that place by increasing the garrison there to seven hundred men. The French were anxious for Oswego, for

though Forts Niagara and Frontenac commanded each end of Lake Ontario, Oswego, upon the southern bank, held the key to the Ohio valley. So long as this was not in the possession of the English, the French traders were not likely to be interfered with. Dieskau was, indeed, upon the point of moving against Oswego, when he heard of General Johnson's intentions to move against Crown Point. Dieskau abandoned his first intention and hurried to meet Johnson. He had two thousand men, whom he took up Lake Champlain to Fort St. Frederick, at Crown Point. There he waited for the English. General Johnson's forces had been sent northward, under General Lyman, in mid-summer. They spent their time in building a fort on the east bank of the Hudson while they waited for General Johnson to arrive with the necessary stores and equipments. It was the 8th of August, 1755, when General Johnson set out to join Lyman. Ammunition, provisions and all other necessities of a campaign were carried fourteen miles to Lake George. Here they were obliged to wait for their boats, but built a fort in the meantime. Here Indians from the Six Nations joined Johnson from time to time in small numbers. Lyman's men were engaged in strengthening the fort; Johnson encamped farther south on the lake, in a spot protected by the lake on one side and a marsh on the other.

Dieskau left a strong party at Crown Point and marched southward, with the intention of taking Lyman's men, thus cutting off Johnson from his supplies. Could he do this, there would be nothing between him and the New England border. The Indians were full of objections. They were always reluctant about attacking forces, having a terrible fear of cannon. They refused to believe Dieskau when he told them that Lyman was entirely unprovided with them. Dieskau was, therefore, obliged to march against Johnson's camp. Johnson heard of their approach and went to meet them. Dieskau prepared an ambush in the shape of a horseshoe, intending, when the English marched into it, to bring around one of the long lines and close about them, attacking from all sides. Hendrick, the chief of the Mohawks, and a detachment of Johnson's men, marched into this. Upon three sides of them the French and Indians rose with a yell and fell upon them. Bloody Pond, on the east shore of Lake George, still marks the spot where those unfortunate men fell. Reinforcements covered the flight of the remnant of the English back to the rude barricade which Johnson had hastily raised and where he had placed his few cannons which he had brought up in boats.

The Canadian Indians would not pursue the fight when they saw the

cannons. The Mohawks, on the English side, had already fled. Their chief, Hendricks, had been killed. The provincial soldiers, hiding behind their barricade of trees, picked off the French regulars until they were obliged to take to the woods. Johnson had been wounded and Lyman took command. The French, protected by the trees, crept up close to the breastworks, and the battle became a hand-to-hand fight. Lyman kept the cannons busy sending a raking fire through the swamps where the savages were lurking. The French were obliged to fly. Johnson gave orders that his men were not to pursue them. The French rested and began preparations for a meal, for they were half starved. Just then a detachment of two hundred New Hampshire troops marched down from Fort Lyman. These fell upon the French, and besides doing much execution, got their baggage and ammunition. The French lost about five hundred, the English between two and three hundred.

There was the greatest rejoicing in the colonies. Johnson was made a baronet and given a large sum of money. In Albany, the people knew that they had been saved from destruction. The English proceeded to build a strong fort at the south end of Lake George. It was called Fort William Henry. That and Fort Lyman were both well garrisoned. The French took possession of the pass at Ticonderoga and fortified it. Governor Shirley, since the death of Braddock, had been at the head of the English army in America. The plans which he laid for the coming year, 1756, were a repetition of the year before. The desire was to capture Fort Du Quesne and Crown Point; Niagara, Frontenac, and Ticonderoga were to be taken, if possible. The British and French governments formally declared war in May, 1756. Lord Loudon was made Commander-in-chief of the English forces, and the Marquis De Montcalm was placed at the head of the French. The Englishman was indolent and unambitious. He waited for this thing and that, while the army in America was suffering for his presence. Montcalm was very different. He hastened to Canada with two thousand men and a large quantity of stores. Under his directions the French cut off supplies intended for Oswego. They captured small English forts, took a considerable number of prisoners, and succeeded in winning the alliance of the Six Nations. The French succeeded in capturing Fort Ontario, with a slight loss to themselves. The English lost as prisoners of war, sixteen hundred men, including eighty officers, one hundred and twenty pieces of artillery, a large store of ammunition, and the seven armed ships and two hundred batteaux which were to have been sent against Niagara and Frontenac.

The English, weakened by the languid and ineffectual command of Lord Loudon, continued to be inactive. The force had dwindled, by sickness, from seven to four thousand. Montcalm returned to Montreal for the winter. The English plans for the next year were to confine hostilities to a single expedition. This was to be against Louisburg, which the English had taken once before so gallantly. Four thousand more men were raised in the colonies. The troops met at Halifax and were joined by Loudon with six thousand regulars, but when Loudon learned that Louisburg was well garrisoned, he concluded to put off an attack for a year and returned to New York. When Montcalm heard of this, he made up his mind to move against Fort William Henry. This fort had been badly situated. Some of the hills by it commanded it absolutely, and around it were marshes and low-lying ground. Montcalm, with fifty-five hundred Canadians and regulars, and sixteen hundred Indians, made his way from Ticonderoga across the portage to the upper part of Lake George. Here he divided his men. Part were sent in batteaux and canoes down the lake with all the baggage, and twenty-eight hundred followed the Indian's trail by the side of the lake. These last mentioned were under the command of De Levis. Montcalm landed on the west side of the lake, about two miles from the fort, and demanded its surrender. Colonel Monroe, who was in command, promptly refused, thinking that he could rely on the assistance of General Webb's men at Fort Lyman, fifteen miles below. But Webb had the stupidity to advise Monroe to surrender, since he could give no aid to him unless General Johnson arrived with reinforcements. The French intercepted this letter, learned the nature of the men they had to deal with, and sent the messenger on his way.

General Johnson did arrive with reinforcements, but Webb would not permit him to give the assistance to poor Monroe, although the common soldiery were wild for action, and outraged at the meanness which left him to his fate. The siege lasted for six days and Monroe was obliged to surrender. Montcalm made liberal terms but the Indians had been inflamed with liquor and their thirst for blood aroused. Montcalm had promised that the troops should be marched to Fort Lyman safely. He tried to keep his word, but the Indians broke from all control and fell upon the Englishmen. In their panic the English even fled to the French for protection. It has never ceased to be a subject for dispute among the friends and enemies of Montcalm, as to whether he inspired the Indians in this treachery or not. Montcalm burned Fort William Henry and returned to Canada.

The Indian depredations continued all along the English frontier as far as the valley of the Shenandoah. Oswego, the key of the Ohio valley and the great lakes, had been lost. It is true that the English held Acadia, but the silent and desolated villages were not a proud possession. Fortunately, at this time, a man who was always a friend of the American colonies came to their relief. It was William Pitt, the English statesman. At this time he was Secretary of State, and he took vigorous measures for sending armies, ammunition and a general equipment from England. He also called for a large number of colonial soldiers. All the New England men needed was encouragement and example, and they responded to the call with enthusiasm. Admiral Boscawen and Sir Jeffrey Amherst were placed in command of the forces which were called to attack Louisburg. On June 2, 1758, these forces arrived at Louisburg, and a well-planned assault was made. The French surrendered and the English took six thousand prisoners. This was very important to the English, for there now stood nothing between Louisburg and Quebec, the strongest and most impregnable of the Canadian cities. New England began to take courage once more, and looked to Brigadier-General Wolfe, who played an important part in the engagement, for a leadership of more power. Abercrombie, who had taken the place of the ineffective Loudon, was aiming at the capture of Ticonderoga. With him was Lord Howe, a general of bravery and dash, trusted by his officers and beloved by his men.

On the 5th of July, Abercrombie came up Lake George with fifteen thousand troops, both regulars and provincials, in a fleet of batteaux. The scarlet uniforms of his English regulars, the plaids of his Highland troops, and the motley garb of his provincials making a picturesque spectacle. The French had been sent to keep the English from landing. One body of them was driven back, the other took to the woods, and wandering there bewildered, encountered a body of horsemen, who were also lost. In the engagement which followed, nearly all of the French (three hundred and fifteen) were killed. The English lost heavily also, and Lord Howe was shot. His loss was a greater disaster to the English than twice the number of the French slain would have been. On the 8th, a regular attack was made upon Carillon. Abercrombie sent his regulars again and again to the deadly abatis. The huge trunks and roots of the trees afforded the best protection in the world for the French. Lord Abercrombie, unused to this method of defence, did not sufficiently value its strength.

At sunset the English gave the fight up as hopeless and withdrew to

the lake. The discouraged men encamped upon the ruins of Fort William Henry, and counting their numbers, found that they had lost over two thousand. Meanwhile, Bradstreet, with three thousand men, had once more secured Oswego to the English. He then rode down the lake to Frontenac and captured its garrison, and then returned to Albany to join the men who remained. The third expedition which had been sent for the recovery of Fort Du Quesne, under General Forbes, was successful. Forbes did not march by the road which Braddock had followed, but started from Bedford, Massachusetts. With Forbes was Colonel Washington and his Virginian troops. A great deal of time was wasted in building bridges and leveling woods after the manner of European warfare, which the commander followed and Washington protested against. The march was so long that the provisions were exhausted, and it was feared that the expedition would have to return without having accomplished anything. The French did not feel strong enough to venture resistance, and they set fire to their magazine. So the English conquered almost in spite of themselves. The key to the lakes and the Ohio valley was once more in their possession. A terrible disaster befell the army a few days later, when Grant's detachment of men, consisting largely of Highlanders, were surprised by seven or eight hundred Frenchmen, and nearly all killed. Pitt continued to send supplies and men over to America. By the 6th of July, the English were before Niagara. The general first in command was killed by the carelessness of one of his soldiers, and Sir William Johnson took his place. The French knew that their garrison was too small to hold against the besieging force, and sent to Detroit and Presque Isle for reinforcements. These the English met and defeated in a spirited engagement. When the French at the fort were convinced of this disaster, they surrendered. Meanwhile, Amherst had brought eleven thousand men to awe the little garrison of Ticonderoga. The French did not attempt resistance, but blew up the magazine and retreated northward. Amherst went on cautiously to Crown Point, only to find that the French had retreated still farther north. The rest of the year was employed by Amherst in building those massive works on Crown Point, which are still the wonder of tourists. Rogers was sent with his rangers against the Indians, but the great interest of the English campaign lay with General Wolfe.

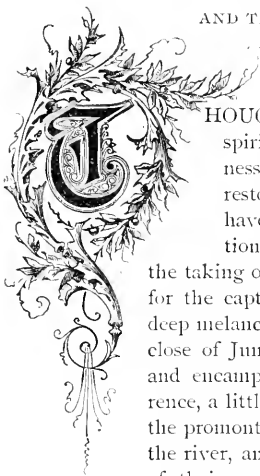
FOR FURTHER READING:

FICTION--James' "Ticonderoga."
Cooper's "Last of the Mohicans."
POETRY--Whittier's "Pentucket."
Whittier's "St. John."

CHAPTER XLVI.

The Paths of Glory.

THE EXPEDITION AGAINST QUEBEC—THE NIGHT ATTACK AND THE
FIGHT ON THE PLAINS OF ABRAHAM—THE DEATH OF
MONTCALM AND WOLFE—NEW ORLEANS
AND THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY
GIVEN TO SPAIN.



THOUGH Wolfe was a man of much strength of spirit, he suffered constantly from bodily weakness. Nothing but a fierce determination to restore the honor of the English colonies could have kept him up through those trying expeditions. He rested in England for a time after the taking of Louisburg, and then returned to prepare for the capture of Quebec, suffering, meantime, from a deep melancholy and a presentiment of death. At the close of June, 1759, the English forces left Louisburg and encamped on the Isle d'Orleans, in the St. Lawrence, a little below Quebec. A detachment was put on the promontory of Point Levi, on the southern shore of the river, and still nearer the city. Montcalm learned of their coming, and made preparations for defence.

Rocky bluffs rose straight up from the St. Lawrence, and for years these natural fortifications had been considered impregnable. Montcalm had about three thousand men, in fortified camps, protecting the city. Across the St. Lawrence was a dam, with vessels sunk behind it and barges in front. The St. Lawrence, on the south side of the city, was about a mile wide, and at that place was a swift-flowing river. Montcalm's forces were much larger than Wolfe's, and the English soldiers were inclined to the belief that an attempt against such forces and fortifications was useless. Wolfe did not depend upon strength, but on strategy. An attack was made on the French camp near the falls of Montmorenci. The Englishmen made a bold attack, but in the end were forced to take

to their boats and retreat. The expedition was a sorry failure, and at least five hundred men were lost by the English.

The siege was kept up for another month. Little effect was made upon the upper town, but the lower one was almost destroyed. Wolfe was sick and melancholy. The inaction was dispiriting to the troops. What they desired was to force Montcalm to meet them on open field. At length Wolfe, lying ill in his tent, hit upon a plan which made him immortal. In the time which they had lingered there, Wolfe had become well acquainted with the country, for his men had reconnoitred faithfully. Therefore, on the night of the twelfth, a moonless night, Wolfe rose from his bed and led sixteen hundred of his men. They dropped silently down the river with the current, and landed beneath the overhanging heights above the city. Up these wooded bluffs were steep paths, and fourteen volunteers led the way while the sixteen hundred men followed. Once they were challenged by a sentinel. A Highlander replied, in the French tongue, that they brought provisions. There was no other interruption. It was the Highland boys in their plaids that sprang ashore first. They were used to mountain climbing, and rushed up the steep. The little guard at the head of the path was soon overpowered. When the morning light broke, Quebec was astonished to see an English army on the Plains of Abraham, the great table land behind the city. Montcalm hurried thither with twenty-five hundred men.

He had been on the other side of the St. Lawrence river, and had to cross the bridge of boats and pass through the city before he reached the Plains. The English had already begun to intrench themselves. The French had no time for preparations, and one gun was all they had been able to drag after them. The Canadians crouched in the corn-fields and began the attack, and the French regulars, in three divisions, moved upon the centre and the flanks of the English. The French kept up a steady fire, but the English did not level their guns until their enemies were within a few feet. Then, of course, the fire was deadly, and the English followed it up by a hand-to-hand attack. The Frenchmen fell into disordered rout.

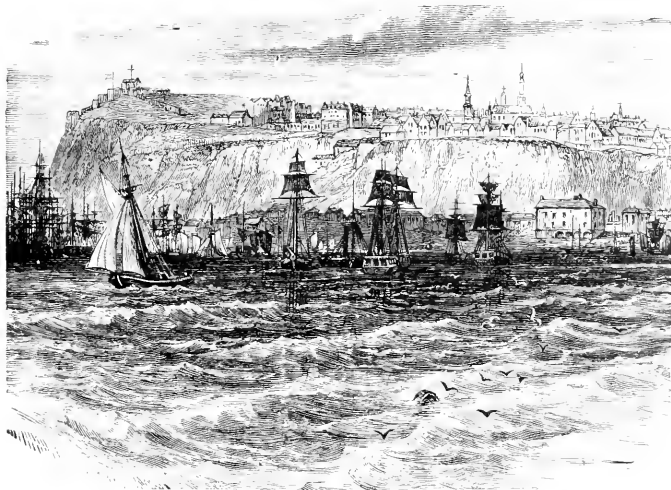
Wolfe was wounded. He had one ball in his side, and another in his breast. Some one carried him to the rear and laid him on the grass, where he lay almost unconscious, but when a man cried, "See how they run!" Wolfe raised himself suddenly and asked, "Who run?" When he heard it was the enemy, he gave his last orders:

"Tell Colonel Burton to march Webb's regiment down the St.

Lawrence river and cut off their retreat from the bridge." Then he died peacefully. Montcalm was also killed, and was buried in a cavity of the earth made by the bursting of a bombshell. It was the burial he had asked for. On the 18th of September, 1759, the British took possession of Quebec, the French withdrawing their troops to Montreal.

With the opening of the river in the spring, De Levis came down from Montreal with an army of seven thousand men. The English moved out with soldierly spirit, and a second battle was fought upon the Plains of Abraham. The English were worsted, and the French began a siege. Both forces waited in quiet for some time, expecting reinforcements. They came to the English first, and De Levis threw his guns into the river and retreated. On the 8th of September the city surrendered. In the terms of capitulation were included Detroit, Michelinmackinac and all the French forts farther west. The French fleet, which arrived upon the coast soon after, was entirely destroyed by the British squadron. Canada, Nova Scotia and Cape Breton now belonged to Great Britain.

FOR FURTHER READING:
HISTORY—Warburton's "Conquest of Canada."
FICTION—Hall's "Twice Taken."
Tiffany's "Brandon."

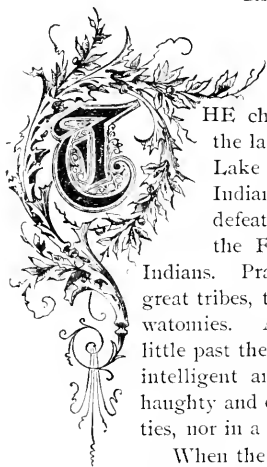


QUEBEC.

CHAPTER XLVII.

A Blow For Liberty.

PONTIAC, CHIEF OF THE OTTAWAS—ARRIVAL OF ROGERS' MEN AT
DETROIT—PONTIAC'S CONSPIRACY—BEGINNING OF
WAR—THE SIEGE OF DETROIT—THE
BATTLE OF BLOODY
BRIDGE.



HE chief of the Ottawas, Pontiac, claimed all the land upon the southern and western sides of Lake Erie. He is said to have commanded his Indians with great skill at the time of Braddock's defeat. In 1746, he and his warriors defended the French with bravery, against the Northern Indians. Practically, he was the principal chief of three great tribes, the Objibewas, the Ottawas, and the Pottawatomies. At the time of which we write he was a little past the prime of life, but was still one of the most intelligent and formidable men of his race. He was haughty and eloquent, not lacking in statesmanlike qualities, nor in a certain poetic imagination.

When the English detachment was sent to take possession of Detroit, under Major Rogers, Pontiac came in person to inquire what right he had to pass through the country. He was told of the conquest of Canada and that the party were on the way to accept the surrender of Detroit. Pontiac retired to turn the matter over in his mind for the night, and on the following day made a speech in which he affirmed his friendliness towards the English and promised that they should be unmolested. That he was sincere in his protestations of friendship is proved by the fact that when Rogers and his famous rangers arrived at the Detroit river, Pontiac persuaded four hundred Detroit Indians, who were lying there in ambush for them, to disperse. Had he not done so, this would have been the last adventure

of that picturesque band of men whose exploits have been the delight of all American boys.

But the English were never so attractive to the Indians as were the French, and after a time the grim old savage, Pontiac, began to long for his more entertaining friends, who had so long lived near him in good fellowship. He could not understand why a large garrison of Frenchmen should lay down their arms and surrender to a handful of English rangers, and he listened with satisfaction to the tales which the French poured into his ears. They said that the great French Father had been asleep, but that he would awaken now and avenge the wrongs of his children. Pontiac, solitary and gloomy, pondered upon this in the depths of the Michigan forests, and laid plans for driving the English from the country. This was to be done by attacking all the forts in a single day, as well as all the frontier settlements. He had heard that a large French fleet was on its way down the St. Lawrence, and he hoped to win the good will of the commander. With him, he would march upon the older English settlements and drive the people back across the Atlantic. Ambassadors were sped to the several Indian nations with a red-stained tomahawk and the wampum war belt. The Senecas, Algonquins, Wyandots and some southern tribes became allies of Pontiac. Each tribe was to dispose of the garrison nearest it and then turn upon the adjacent settlements. On April 27, 1763, Pontiac called a great council on the river Ecorces and addressed his warriors there. He recounted all the wrongs the Indians had suffered at the hands of the English, and he told of a tradition that a Delaware Indian had been allowed to enter the presence of the Great Spirit, who told him that his race must return to the customs and weapons of their ancestors, give up the whisky which the white men had taught them to use, and throw away the implements with which he had tried to chain them to the dull drudgery of civilization. Pontiac assured his friends that the French were coming down the St. Lawrence with a large fleet of soldiers who would stand by them and be their friends. The insurrection was to be on the 7th of May, and Pontiac was to lead the attack on Detroit.

On the 1st he visited the fort with forty warriors, and danced the dance of peace before them. He retired to finish his plans of war. He and one hundred chiefs were to enter the fort for the purpose of holding a council with the commander. Pontiac was to make a speech, and when he presented the wampum belt wrong end foremost, it was to be the signal for the Indians to fall upon the officers and kill them.

The Indians waiting outside about the streets were to do the same deadly work among the soldiers and citizens. The plans were well laid, but on the 5th, one of the English women visiting in Ottawa village to make purchases of maple sugar and venison, saw many warriors cutting off the barrels of their guns with files. She wondered why they could wish the barrels of their guns to be made shorter. There was only one conclusion; they wished to hide them under the folds of their blankets. One of the beautiful young Indian girls who were in the habit of visiting the fort left with so much reluctance on the night before the attack that she was questioned until she confessed the details of the plot. Pontiac made her suffer severely afterward for this treachery to her race.

The force of Pontiac about Detroit was from six hundred to two thousand. The English garrison consisted of one hundred and twenty men. The fort was a square enclosed by a palisade twenty feet high. At each corner was a wooden bastion, with a few light pieces of artillery, and over the gateways were block-houses. Two armed schooners were anchored in the river.

Pontiac came at the appointed time and entered the gate with his warriors. He saw at once that his plans had been discovered. "Why do I see so many of my father's young men standing in the street with their guns?" he asked. Gladwyn, who was commanding, replied, lightly, that they had been out for exercise. Pontiac began his speech, doubtless turning over in his mind the possibility of an attack even now. Once he lifted the wampum belt. Gladwyn replied with a slight movement of his hand. There was a rattle of arms at the door and the roll of a drum. Pontiac sat down in dismayed silence. The Indians were finally conducted to the gate by the soldiers, and ushered out in sullen silence.

Pontiac and three chiefs came back the next day with a calumet and told Gladwyn that evil birds had sung lies in his ear. The following day he came with a large crowd of warriors, to find the gates barred. He was told that he alone would be allowed to enter. The war-whoop which his followers gave was the declaration of hostilities. Some of them ran to the defenceless English houses outside the fort, killed the inhabitants, and shook their bloody scalps at the soldiers. Pontiac's village was hastily moved across the river to the mouth of the creek we now know as Bloody Run, a mile and a half north of the fort. On the 10th he began a regular siege, fighting in the usual savage manner, behind barns and fences, keeping well out of reach of return fire. Two Scotch

officers responded to Pontiac's wish to hold a council with the English. Both were detained as prisoners and one was murdered.

The Wyandots joined Pontiac and the siege was renewed with great vigor. It had taken Gladwyn some time to realize the extent of the conspiracy. But now he removed everything about the fort which could obstruct the sweep of his guns. He carefully economized the provisions, and dug wells in the fort. These wells were not alone needed to provide against thirst, but to extinguish the fires as well, for one of the chief methods of Indian warfare was to tip the arrows with burning tow. Under cover of darkness the friendly Indians across the shore brought over supplies. Pontiac's soldiers had not been prepared for sustained conflict, and before long were short of provisions. The old chief was not lacking in dignified ideas of war and would not permit his men to prey upon the Canadian farms. He made a large number of promissory notes upon birch bark, which were to be exchanged for provisions. After his disastrous war had closed it is said that he redeemed all of these notes.

Reinforcements were on their way up Lake Erie for Gladwyn. He knew of this, and sent one of his schooners to hasten their approach, but the schooner missed them, and they continued to slowly creep up the coast, not knowing of the siege, and were captured by a band of Wyandots, who killed or took as prisoners sixty men. Only two boats escaped.

The Indians hid in the boats which they had captured and forced the crew to sail into the harbor. The Indians hoped to enter the fort by this strategy. At the fort they had watched the approach of the boats with great delight, and the disappointment when they were seen to be laden with Indians, was almost unbearable. The two boats which escaped hastened to Niagara and told their story. An expedition for relief was formed. The Indians made an attempt to capture this also, but it reached the fort in safety.

The approaches to the fort were guarded by the schooners, of which the Indians stood in great fear. They made several attempts to destroy them with fire-rafts, but were not successful. The Wyandots and Pottawatomies exchanged prisoners with Gladwyn and sued for peace, but the Ottawas and Ojibwas kept up the conflict. On the 29th of July a reinforcement of two hundred and eighty men reached Detroit, and revived the spirits of the exhausted garrison. They now felt strong enough to march out from the fort and openly attack the Indian camp. But the Indian never could be made to fight in fair field.

They hid behind every tree and clump of bushes. Dalzell, who led the expedition, could find no enemy, and after going as far as the deepening twilight would permit, turned his men back toward the fort. Then every bush, tree and hill became alive with savages who had lain in ambush. Dalzell was killed. Rogers took possession of a house and defended some of his men there. The cellar of the house was crowded with women and children, and upon the trap-door, which covered it, stood an old man who needed all his little strength and his eloquence to keep the soldiers from rushing, in their terror, into the cellar. Rogers held out until the batteaux, which had gone down the river with the killed and wounded, returned. This was called the battle of Bloody Bridge. In it the English lost fifty-nine men and the Indians about twenty. The great desire of the Indians was to keep supplies from reaching the fort. One of the schooners returning to the fort from Niagara was attacked in the Detroit river by a large number of Indians, who swam silently through the water with knives in their teeth. The crew fought them with spears and hatchets, and succeeded in saving the boats from capture, but the captain was killed and several men badly wounded. The boat would have been lost, had not the mate given an order that the magazines should be fired. The Indians understood enough English to take warning. The next expedition which was sent to the fort from Niagara was overtaken by a storm. Seventy men were lost, besides all the store of ammunition.

The Ottawas finally sued for peace, and Pontiac raised the siege in October and returned to his melancholy forest. That portion of the war which he superintended himself had not been successful, but his allies had been more fortunate. At almost every fort in that country the work of destruction had been successfully carried out. Forts Sandusky, St. Joseph and Quatanoir, on the Wabash, were all captured, and in most cases the garrison were murdered. At Michelimackinac, a very crafty plan was laid for the taking of the fort. The Indians invited the officers to witness a game of ball on the plain in front of the fort. From early morning till noon the soldiers looked on, well pleased with the sport. Finally the ball was thrown near the gate of the fort. The Indians made a rush for it, seized the two officers, who were standing near, and bound them, while the savages poured into the fort. Inside were the squaws, with weapons concealed under their blankets. These the men seized and fell upon the soldiers. Seventeen were killed instantly, and six were tortured to death. The English traders were led into captivity. The French, quietly looking on, were not touched.

At Prasqui, near the present town of Erie, Pennsylvania, the fort was besieged for two days and a half. Here the Indians mined the fort and the English were obliged to surrender. They were taken as prisoners to Pontiac's camp. At Fort Le Bœuf, a block-house, in which the garrison had taken refuge, was set on fire, and the garrison of fourteen men dug a hole in the ground in the rear and crept stealthily into the forest, while the Indians stood dancing around in the belief that they were burning to death. The men started for Fort Pitt, but some of them died of hunger by the way. At Fort Venango, on the Alleghany, the garrison was butchered and Lieutenant Gordon slowly tortured to death. Fort Pitt itself was well fortified. It had a good supply of water and provisions, and the attack was not successful. A command was sent out from Philadelphia, under Colonel Henry Boquet, to strengthen the garrison at Fort Pitt. He had five hundred men with him, mostly Highlanders. These marched through a desolate tract of country at the western part of Pennsylvania. Many settlements there had been laid waste and the inhabitants murdered. A fierce attack was made on him near the stream called Brush river, where the men had encamped. His little army was entirely surrounded, and his horses, unused to the blood-curdling shrieks of the Indians, were unmanageable. The Scotchmen fought firmly, rather than bravely, and their very lack of excitement won them the victory. The fight was resumed the next day at the first break of light. The Scotchmen were placed at a terrible disadvantage. They stood in an open space in a compact mass. The Indians were dispersed through the woods and fought from behind trees. Boquet feigned retreat. The Indians supposed that their prey was about to escape, and made a furious attack. This was exactly what Boquet desired. In a short time the Indians were flying before the Scotchmen. The march was resumed, and the force arrived at Fort Pitt, having lost eight officers and one hundred and fifteen men.

In a short time general peace was made, but for many months after the people in the frontier villages lived in terror of their lives. Two thousand whites were killed. Several costly expeditions had been entirely destroyed. Pontiac, still revengeful, tried to start another conspiracy, but failed. He was murdered in 1769 by a Kaskaskia Indian, on the spot where St. Louis now stands.

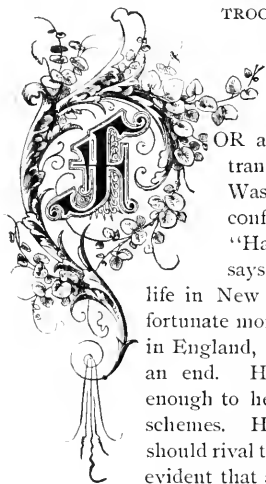
FOR FURTHER READING.

HISTORY—Parkman's "Conspiracy of Pontiac."
DRAMA—A. Macomb's "Pontiac."

CHAPTER XLVIII.

Cæsar Had His Brutus.

THE STAMP ACT—CONDITION OF THE COLONIES—THE OPPOSITION
TO TAXATION—REPEAL OF THE STAMP ACT—REFUSAL OF
THE ASSEMBLY TO PROVIDE FOR THE
TROOPS SENT OVER BY
ENGLAND.



FOR a time after the close of the war a pleasant tranquility reigned in the colonies. George Washington, writing to a friend in England, confessed there was really nothing to say. "Happy the people whose annals are tiresome," says Montesquieu. For a time it seemed as if life in New England was to resolve itself into this fortunate monotony. But the young King George III, in England, had ideas which brought this tranquility to an end. He believed that the colonies were rich enough to help him in carrying out one of his famous schemes. He wished to build a great palace which should rival the splendor of Versailles. To do this, it was evident that a prodigious sum of money was necessary. There was no easier way to raise it than by taxing the American colonies. In 1763 a bill was introduced in Parliament which tested the whole question of the possible revenue to be derived from that source. It required that stamps varying in price, none of them less than one shilling, should be placed upon the records of all commercial transactions. An amendment to the sugar act was also introduced. The duty on foreign molasses was changed from six pence a gallon to three pence, and new duties were imposed on coffee, pimento, East India goods, and wines from Madeira and the western islands. George III was not mistaken in thinking that there had been a rapid increase of wealth in the American colonies. Between the years 1765 and 1775 two-thirds of



James K. Polk

the foreign commerce of Great Britain was that which she conducted with America. Between 1700 and 1760 the value of property in England increased fifty per cent. William Pitt claimed that this was due wholly to the American colonies, and said that Great Britain reaped a profit of two millions a year from them. At this time there were three millions of people in America, and these purchased almost every manufactured article from Great Britain, exporting, in return, fish, tobacco, indigo, rice and naval stores. England sent goods amounting to two million pounds annually to New York and Pennsylvania alone.

But to the indignant Americans who turned the stamp act over in their assemblies, there seemed to be no reason why they should be imposed upon simply because they were prosperous. That peculiar form of lawlessness which was so much stronger and more dignified than law, and which the people of New England had shown before, was thoroughly roused now. Samuel Adams, the leader of the popular party in Boston, inflamed the people by his indignant eloquence. "If our trade may be taxed, why not our lands?" said he. "Why not the produce of our lands, and, in short, everything we possess or make use of? If taxes are laid upon us in any shape, without our having a legal representative where they are laid, are we not reduced from the character of subjects to the miserable state of tributary slaves?" Such speeches, and James Otis' passionate pamphlet on the rights of the colonies, filled every American with courage and a determination to resist. Quietly, and to an extent secretly, every man in America armed himself. The speeches of the assemblies should have fairly warned the English ministers, but they were anxious to gratify the caprice of their half-mad King. A Continental Congress met at New York, in which there were delegates from the nine assemblies to consider what had best be done. Most of the assemblies had already met in the province and had made their individual protests. In Virginia, Patrick Henry had drawn up his famous resolutions denouncing the right of the mother country to tax her colonies. These were warmly opposed, and Henry, rising in the house, cried, "Cæsar had his Brutus, Charles I his Cromwell, George III—" "treason!" cried the men from every part of the house—"may profit by their example," continued Henry, firmly. "If this be treason, make the most of it!"

The Continental Congress at New York was composed of the most distinguished men in the colonies. On the roll were the names of many men who, in the end, sided with the Crown. Among them was General Timothy Ruggles, of Massachusetts who was president of the

Congress. He and several others were staunch Tories. The resolutions were not impertinent, nor even passionate. They were dignified, moderate, and absolutely firm. The thirteen articles of these resolutions had a single purpose—a protest against taxation. Meanwhile, the piles of stamp paper which were to produce this new revenue arrived in the different sea-ports. The collectors who brought the stamps were hung in effigy and waited on by mobs. Most of them were compelled to resign. In Boston, the mob entered the house of Oliver, the agent, and broke his windows. Then they gathered at the house of his brother-in-law, Governor Hutchinson, one of the richest men in Boston, and threw everything into the street. The militia was called out to arrest the ringleaders, which they made pretense of doing, but released them willingly enough, when they were ordered to do so by the mob. The newspapers were filled with letters of protest from private citizens. The opposition was led chiefly by the "Sons of Liberty," an association in New York.

The royal governors and the officers under them were very bitter. Lieutenant Cole, of New York, swore that he would cram the stamps down their throats with the sword. The distributor of the stamps in Maryland was obliged to fly to New York, and was finally visited by a delegation from the Sons of Liberty, and forced to take an oath to the effect that he would not resume the duties of his office. In South Carolina, the stamp act was publicly burnt, the bells of Charleston were tolled, and the flags of the ships in the harbor were at half-mast. Nor was it alone the young men, fond of novelty, who conducted these proceedings. The older and more dignified took part in them with equal enthusiasm. The colonies also took more radical and business-like methods of resistance. They agreed among themselves not to import English goods, and orders which had gone forward were countermanded. The retail dealers agreed neither to buy nor sell such goods as were brought into the country. A fair was opened in New York devoted to domestic manufactures. That the growth of wool might not be interfered with, it was determined that no lambs might be used as food. No mourning goods were manufactured in America and it was agreed that they should not be purchased. Some of the ship-masters bringing them over were forced to return with their cargo.

In England there was a new ministry—a ministry which had not yet made up its mind what its attitude should be toward the colonies. For the first time in a year, William Pitt appeared in the House. His speech upon the situation was most sarcastic. He said that Americans



PATRICK HENRY.

were the sons, not the bastards, of England, and closed his speech with the celebrated words: "The honorable gentleman tells us that America is obstinate; America is almost in open rebellion. Sir, I rejoice that America has resisted. Three millions of people, so dead to all the feelings of liberty as voluntarily to submit to be slaves, would have been fit instruments to make slaves of all the rest." Benjamin Franklin was present, and was examined thoroughly on the question. The stamp act was repealed. Throughout the colonies this was received with the greatest enthusiasm. Joy bells were rung in the churches, liberty poles raised, and pictures of Conway and Barre hung in Fanenil Hall. Conway was the man who had brought in the resolution for the repeal of the act. Barre was the man, who, when the stamp act was passing through Parliament, replied to the remark that the colonies had been planted by the care of England, with this indignant speech: "They planted by your care! No, your oppressions planted them in America. They nourished up by your indulgence! They grew by your neglect of them. As soon as you began to care about them, that care was exercised in sending persons to rule them in one department, and another who were perhaps the deputies of deputies to some member of this house, sent to spy out their liberties, to misrepresent their actions and to prey upon them; men whose behavior on many occasions has caused the blood of those Sons of Liberty to recoil within them!" Statues of George III and Pitt were erected in Virginia and Maryland. In New York, statues of the King and Pitt were also erected and liberty poles raised, at the bases of which hogsheads of punch were drank.

But the people had rejoiced too soon. The habits of loyalty was still strong in them, and they desired to have cordial relations with the home government. They had taken the repeal of the stamp act for more than it really meant. The sugar act was not modified, and still collected a revenue. It was still required of the colonies that they should provide fire, candles, vinegar, salt, bedding, utensils for cooking, beer, cider and wine for all the troops who might be sent to America. Again the ministry of England had changed, and now had at its head a man who was determined to tax the colonies as he pleased. He insisted that military garrisons should be kept up in all the large colonial towns, and that they should be supported by colonial taxation. In June of 1768, Sir Henry Moore, the Governor of New York, sent a message to the assembly, asking them to make provisions for the troops, then on their way to the colony. The assembly refused. They were willing, they said, to bear a share in the support of the troops on

their way through the province, as they had always done, of their own free will. But they would contribute nothing to the quartering of troops in the colony. Parliament ordered that all the legislative rights of New York should be stopped until this command had been complied with. The sympathy of all the colonies was with New York. At this time port duties were levied on wine, wools and fruit, if shipped direct from Spain and Portugal, and upon glass, paper, lead, colors and tea. This revenue was to be used for the support of the civil officers of the colonies. It will be remembered that the assemblies had always insisted upon the right to care for the royal governors in the way they considered best, and that the sum given to the Governor annually, depended partly upon the prosperity of the province, and partly upon the benefit which the Governor had actually been during the year. A letter of supplication was promptly sent to the King. The reply was a letter from the Secretary of State of England, to the General Court of Massachusetts, commanding them to withdraw the resolution which gave birth to the letter. If they refused, the government was to dissolve the court. The assemblies of the other colonies received word that they would also be dissolved if they were disobedient. A letter so insulting and patronizing showed the absolute ignorance which England was in regarding the character of the American men with whom they had to deal.

Four regiments of soldiers were then quartered in the town of Boston. Every man was curious to know why they were there. Americans could not grasp the idea of a standing army. They believed that the soldiers were there for no reason but to menace the community. The idea entertained in England, that it was a compliment to have troops stationed at a town, could not be understood by them. This Puritan town, forced by law into habits which were almost ascetic, and ruled by a government which was largely religious, could not tolerate the gayety, not to say debauchery, of the soldiers. The town had refused to prepare quarters for them. At a town meeting it was requested that every inhabitant should provide himself with fire-arms for sudden danger, in the case of a war with France. There was, as everyone knew, no likelihood of a war with France, but the fiction was sustained, and every man obeyed the bidding. When the troops arrived, one regiment was quartered in Faneuil Hall, another in the town hall, and one encamped on the Common. The Irish regiments, which arrived, a few days later, were added to those on the Common. A fleet of eighty men-of-war, having in all over one hundred and eighty guns, was

anchored off the town. It was with difficulty that the wisest among the Bostonians prevented an outbreak. The people were not only willing to fight, but they were anxious to do so.

The very boys shared the popular discontent. There had been quite a quarrel between them and the soldiers, for the soldiers were in the habit of destroying the snow-slides which the boys had prepared for their sleds. The boys appealed in vain to the captain, and finally went to the British general. He said: "Have your fathers been teaching rebellion, and sent you here to exhibit it?" "Nobody sent us here," said one of the boys. "We have never injured nor insulted your troops, but they have been spoiling our snow-slides so that we cannot use them any more. We complained, and they called us young rebels and told us to help ourselves, if we could. We told the captains of this and they laughed at us. Yesterday our slides were destroyed once more, and we will bear it no longer." The general ordered the damage repaired and told General Gage about the matter, who said that it was impossible to beat the notion of liberty out of people who had it planted in them from childhood.

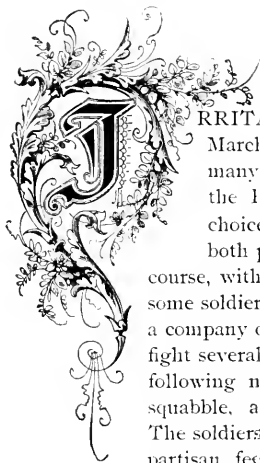
FOR FURTHER READING:

BIOGRAPHY—Loring's "The Hundred Boston Orators."
Tudor's "Life of Otis."
Wells' "Life of Samuel Adams."
Sparks' "Franklin."
Adams' "Life of John Adams."
Wirt's "Patrick Henry."

CHAPTER XLIX.

The Boston Tea-Drinkers.

TROUBLE IN BOSTON—"THE BOSTON MASSACRE"—THE TEA TAX—
ATTITUDE OF GOVERNOR HUTCHINSON—THE BOSTON
"TEA PARTY"—THE BOSTON
PORT BILL.



IRRITATION in Boston reached its height on March 3, 1770. For a long time there had been many quarrels among the common soldiery and the Boston seamen. Probably there was little choice between the ignorance and brutality of both parties, but the popular sympathies were, of course, with the Americans. On the evening of the 3d, some soldiers had agreed to hold a sort of free fight with a company of rope-makers. In the rough hand-to-hand fight several men on both sides were wounded. On the following night an attempt was made to renew the squabble, and it was suppressed with some difficulty. The soldiers were resentful and naturally had a strong partisan feeling. On the night of March 5th, two young men tried to pass a sentinel at the foot of Cornhill. The sentinel told them that they could not pass. A struggle followed and a crowd gathered. The sentinel was snow-balled. A file of troops was sent out to defend the sentry, and succeeded in getting him into the barracks safely. But the blood of the crowd was up. The actual indignities which had been heaped upon them made them anxious for revenge, and they can hardly be criticised if their methods were petty. Another sentinel was espied, who had, it was said, knocked down a Boston boy a few days before. The ill-nature of the mob was turned against him. He tried to enter the building and escape, but found the door locked, and was forced to call for the main guard. Six men were sent to his relief. Captain Preston, the officer of the day, was at an

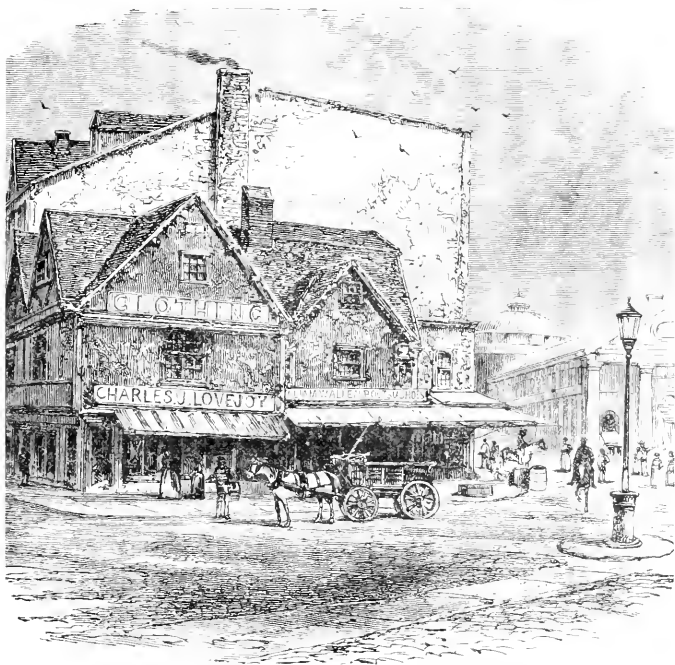
entertainment in the city. A messenger was dispatched for him. The mob grew every minute, and the bells throughout the city were set ringing as if for fire. Captain Preston and six more men came on the ground. The men presented only their bayonets by way of defense against the mob, and fell back in front of the custom-house. They were ordered not to fire, and, in spite of the missiles and epithets hurled at them, managed to control themselves. But when a soldier received a severe blow from a club, he lost his sense of discipline, leveled his gun, and fired. Seven or eight more soldiers followed his example. When the mob had fled, three men were found dead on the ground. Two others were mortally wounded, and six slightly. The exploit afforded the Bostonians a certain grim satisfaction. The strain upon their patience had ended. The longed-for opportunity for action had come. The twenty-ninth regiment answered the beat of arms, and soon formed in King street. From the balcony of the State House, Governor Hutchinson, a man of old New England blood, promised that a thorough investigation should be made. Captain Preston, before daylight, surrendered himself and was placed in jail. The selectmen lost no time in waiting upon the Governor and assuring him that the troops must be removed from town. The Governor replied that the regiment that had had the fight with the rope-makers might be marched to the castle. This answer was carried to the town meeting, where the selectmen awaited it, in the Old South Church. Samuel Adams said that if there was authority for removing one regiment, there was authority to remove two. "Nothing short of the total evacuation of the town by all the regular troops," said he, "will satisfy the public mind and preserve the peace of the province." Hutchinson knew the humor of the New England men, and though all England laughed at him afterward for his compliance, he had all the troops removed. It delayed, beyond a doubt, the War of the Revolution, just five years. Preston was tried for murder, but was acquitted. Two soldiers were found guilty of manslaughter and sentenced to be branded in the hand.

In the English cabinet it was decided that tea was still to be retained as a subject of taxation. An effort was made by the wiser members of Parliament to repeal this in less than a year after the act had been passed, but Lord North carried it by a majority. Lord North, who was minister, and the "Friends of the King," were now directing English affairs. The half-distraught young King was in no position to be either wise or generous, had he wished to be so; in truth, he was seriously out of patience with America, and was well pleased to vent his

irritation upon her. The tranquility which had followed the removal of the troops from Boston was soon disturbed by the poor policy of Lord North. The Crown of England was interested in the prosperity of the East India Company. The United States steadily refused to import tea from England, and as a consequence the East India Company found itself burdened with seventeen million pounds of tea in its English store houses. To save it from bankruptcy the government lent it a million and a half of money. The directors of the East India Company wished to be allowed to land the tea free in America. They knew much better than the English minister the humor of the men with whom they had to deal. The King insisted there must be one tax to keep up the right. The tax was only three pence a pound—half of that which was paid in England—but the English subject had the right to cast his vote upon the matter. American colonies were not represented. In this distinction lay all the difference between slavery and freedom. To their great chagrin the people in Boston discovered, at this time, that their Governor, Hutchinson, was writing letters which they considered treasonable. He talked about the establishment of a patrician order, and in one letter said that there must be an abridgement of English liberties among the people of the colony. These letters were shown to Franklin, who was in England, and he obtained permission to send them to America. The Massachusetts assembly begged the King to remove Hutchinson and the Lieutenant-Governor from office. Edmund Burke, the young English statesman, says the council which met to consider this letter had the fullest meeting he ever remembered. Wedderburn, a lawyer, and one of Lord North's favorites, spoke for three hours against the petition, and turned a storm of personal abuse upon Franklin, who was present. Walpole and Pitt made the day famous—one by an epigram, the other by a reproof. Franklin was quiet and apparently undisturbed, but he laid aside a suit of velvet clothes which he wore that day with the remark that he would never put them on again until Wedderburn's insults were avenged. It was ten years before he enjoyed that privilege, and then, as Plenipotentiary of America, he signed, with the English Plenipotentiary, the treaty by which England acknowledged the independence of Franklin's country. To add to the excitement of the council in England, news had just reached them that three cargoes of the taxed tea which had been sent to Boston had been thrown overboard.

The *Dartmouth*, the first of the tea vessels, had arrived in Boston on November 24, 1774. A town meeting was called the next day at

the Old South Meeting-house. Samuel Adams moved that the tea should not be landed, that it should be sent back to the place from which it came, and that no duty should be paid on it. These resolutions were passed unanimously. The owner and master were directed that they were neither to enter the tea at the custom-house nor to land it. A watch was put on the ships, and six horsemen were appointed



OLD BUILDING, AT BOSTON, WHERE THE TEA PLOT WAS HATCHED.

to notify the country at once of any effort to land it by force. In every town, it will be remembered, were a company of minutemen, well equipped and drilled, who were marksmen of no mean order.

It was understood that in twenty days from the arrival of the first ship, the collector would make a formal demand for duties. The twenty days passed and the Governor would not permit the ship to

return to London, even if she had desired to do so. Ships-of-war crowded the channels so that no vessel without a pass could go by the castle outward bound. The town meeting, which was held daily at the Old South Church, had rapidly increased, and on the twentieth day there was a throng. Messengers were sent to the Governor to make one last inquiry as to whether he would give the pass permitting the ship with its lading to leave the harbor or not. He refused. Samuel Adams arose in his seat, and said, with significant emphasis: "This meeting can do nothing more to save the country." Then there was a rush for the wharves, and in the hurrying crowd were seen two bodies of young men, disguised as Mohawk Indians. They took possession of the tea ship, and bidding the captain furnish them with ropes and tackle, they elevated the chests on board, split them open and poured the tea into the harbor. There was no noise, no shouting or rejoicing. The matter was too serious. Every man who stood there, gravely watching the performance, knew what it meant, and that the responsibility assumed by the act was not small. It was nearly dawn when the young men had finished. Who they were no one to this day has ever learned.

One man named Captain O'Connor, a devoted tea-drinker, tried to fill his pockets with the tea. Some more patriotic person seized him as he leaped from the vessel, and Captain O'Connor left the skirts of his coat in the hands of the man who tried to stop him. O'Connor's coat was nailed to the whipping-post next day as a punishment for his lack of public spirit. Boston was not the only place which refused to accept the taxed tea. The ship sent to Philadelphia was stopped before she reached the city, and the captain was forced to turn her toward home. The tea sent to Charleston was landed, but was purposely stored in damp cellars. It would be safe to say that not one cup of tea was ever made from that which North tried to force upon the American colonies. On March 14, 1775, North introduced the Boston port bill, which, by way of punishment for the insubordination of the place, closed the port. After June 18th no person was to be allowed to load or unload any ship in the harbor. The council was hereafter to be appointed by the crown and the magistrates by the Governor. Government was provided for Quebec and all persons who had taken part in the late disturbance were to be tried in England.

FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Bord's "Boston Massacre."

Scudder's "Boston Town."

POETRY—"The Boston Tea Party." See Ford's *Poems of History*.

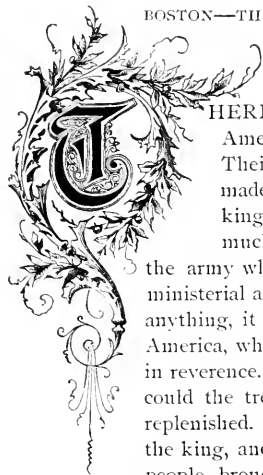
Charles T. Brook's "The Old Thirteen."

Philip Freneau's "An Ancient Prophecy."

CHAPTER L.

The Blood of Patriots.

THE FIRST BLOOD OF THE REVOLUTION—THE MEN OF BILLERICA—
FIGHT AT CONCORD AND LEXINGTON—THE SIEGE OF
BOSTON—THE BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL.



HERE was never a time when the people of the American colonies liked to be called traitors. Their habits of loyalty to the King of England made them lay all blame of oppression upon the king's ministers. The bills which had caused so much dissatisfaction were called ministerial bills; the army whose presence so outraged them was called a ministerial army. Yet, if George III was determined in anything, it was to subdue and humiliate his colonies in America, which he deemed woefully arrogant and lacking in reverence. Besides, from no other source, he believed, could the treasury of England be so easily and rapidly replenished. The pushing of this policy on the part of the king, and the sturdy resistance on the part of the people, brought matters to a crisis. General Gage sent a small detachment of soldiers to Marshfield, in Plymouth county, for the purpose of protecting Tories there from insult. The people made no resistance or complaint about the matter, and General Gage gathered confidence from their apparent indifference. On the twenty-sixth of February, 1775, he sent out Colonel Leslie with a considerable company of men, to seize some cannon at Salem. The soldiers landed at Marblehead on Sunday morning, while the people were all at church, but the news of their landing was hurriedly carried to Salem by a messenger loyal to the American cause. The soldiers were allowed to march unmolested through the town of Salem, but when they came to the North Bridge, beyond which the cannon lay, they found that it had been drawn up—for it was a draw-bridge. The

people standing there quietly told Colonel Leslie that it was a private way, and that no one could be allowed to use it without the owner's consent. Colonel Leslie's reply was to put his men on board a couple of scows. The owners of these scows jumped into them and began to scuttle the boats. The soldiers drove them out with their bayonets. In this way the first blood of the Revolution was shed. There were no further hostilities then. The minister of Salem had a short talk with Colonel Leslie, and got him to accept a compromise. The draw-bridge was lowered. Colonel Leslie and his men walked over it and back again—but without the cannon. Then he retreated to Marblehead, and to Boston, while about him, as he retreated, sprang up the ready minute-men, who did nothing, however, but watch him. To detail all the irritations which deepened the feeling of resentment on both sides would be tedious. Not only was the feeling of anger steadily increasing between the English and Americans, but a stricter line was being drawn between the Conservatives and Radicals. A dispute as to where loyalty ended, and treason began, divided neighborhoods, churches and families. The Provincial Congress at Massachusetts was quietly providing arms and provisions. The magazines of the province were at Concord and Worcester. Almost every town had its own little magazine. The confidence of these little hamlets is something really amazing. What they lacked in strength, they made up in determination. At Billerica, a citizen had bargained with a soldier for a gun. There was an act against trading with soldiers, and the citizen was locked up all night by the officers of the guard, and in the morning was tarred and feathered, without a hearing. The soldiers paraded him through the streets with a placard, on which was written, "American Liberty; or, a Specimen of Democracy." There were fifty voters in Billerica. These sent this portentous paper to General Gage: "May it please your excellency, we must tell you we are determined, if the innocent inhabitants of our country towns must be interrupted by soldiers in their lawful intercourse with the town of Boston, and treated with most brutish ferocity, we shall, hereafter, use a different style of petition than complaint." These petty defiances were really not without their effect upon General Gage. He was fully convinced that the country was a hot-bed of rebellion, and that it could not be taught a lesson too soon. He sent two officers to reconnoitre about Concord and Worcester, where the magazines of the province were. On Tuesday evening, the eighteenth of April, eight hundred men were given instructions to seize and destroy the guns, ammunition and stores at Concord. The troops marched

at night. They left Boston, under command of Colonel Smith, embarking at the water edge of the Common. They landed at Leshmoor's, which is now called Cambridge, and marched across the salt marshes, striking the road to Menotomy. This excursion had long been expected. The Americans had prepared for it. Doctor Warren had returned to Concord from the meeting of the Provincial Congress at Boston. As soon as Gage launched his boats, Warren sent word to Hancock and Adams by Paul Revere. Paul Revere was a coppersmith and engraver. He had been one of the thirty mechanics to patrol the streets of Boston at night all through the winter, in order to watch the movements of the English troops. Revere carried his message to Hancock, and passing through Charlestown, agreed, with a number of gentlemen there, that if the British started out by sea, two lanterns should be shown in the North Church steeple, and if by land, one as a signal. On the night that General Gage moved, Warren sent in great haste for Revere and begged him to set off for Lexington. He took his coat and boots with him for his ride and was rowed across the river to Charlestown. The night was clear and frosty, with stars overhead. Revere found a good horse and waited for the signals. At eleven o'clock, two lanterns were hung in the belfry of the Old North Church. Revere began his famous ride. At every farm house, in every town, the people were aroused. At Lexington he told Hancock and Adams. Here, also, he was joined by Dr. Prescott and William Dawes. On the way, Dawes and Prescott stopped to alarm a house, and Revere was taken prisoner by four English officers. Dawes was also detained, but Prescott escaped to ride on with the news. Colonel Smith, at the head of the English detachment, had made every effort to keep the news from spreading. When he found that the alarm had been given, he sent to Boston for reinforcements. As he had taken all the boats with him which were at the command of General Gage, the reinforcements were obliged to march by land in a roundabout way. General Gage's men were not used to rapid action of this sort, and it was nine o'clock in the morning before they had even gathered upon the Common ready for the march. It was very different, however, with the minutemen of the colonies. Waking and sleeping, for weeks, they had thought of nothing but such an opportunity. The Lexington minutemen were soon drawn up in array. They were under the command of John Parker, a veteran of the French war. Parker saw that his men were largely outnumbered, and tried to withdraw his men. Colonel Piteairn, who commanded the column, rushed forward, crying, "Disperse, rebels, disperse!" No

other words, however carefully selected, could have so inflamed the Americans. But there was a great desire on both sides not to have the responsibility for beginning the war. To the last the commanders of both forces ordered the men not to fire. Both commanders always insisted afterwards that their men did not fire first. What really happened is not known, nor does it especially matter. There was a general firing on both sides. The shots from the Americans hurt no one. The firing of the English killed and wounded many of the Lexington party. Seven were killed and ten wounded out of the little force of seventy, that, in the grey light of the early morning, fought on Lexington Common. The English troops pressed on to Concord. The whole country was alarmed and the people were rising rapidly. There are traditions still in Middlesex and Worcester counties, of a man on a white horse, who rode faster than any mortal man could ride, to say that the English had left Boston and the war had begun. The minutemen were cautious, and seeing that they were far outnumbered, they formed upon a bold hill about eighty rods behind the village of Lexington, near the "North Bridge." There Colonel Barrett joined them as soon as he had done all that was possible in the way of concealing the ammunition and supplies in the storehouse. Colonel Smith, the English commander, began his duties by destroying three new cannons, which Colonel Barret had been unable to remove. To this he added the not very dignified action of breaking up some wooden spoons and trenchers. He set fire to a number of buildings—among them the court house. In the midst of all this, shots were heard at the North Bridge, where the minutemen had taken their stand. Some English soldiers had been stationed on the bridge and the officers of the minutemen decided to drive them away. It was the Lincoln minutemen who volunteered to clear the bridge. "There is not a man in my company that is afraid," said Captain Davis. The column was ordered to pass the bridge without firing, but if attacked, to return the fire. They marched to the air of "The White Cockade." When they were within a short distance of the bridge the English fired three volleys. Two captains were killed. One of them was Davis, who, had he lived, might have done much good to the American cause. The English were forced to retreat, and the minutemen crossed the bridge. The militia, gathering in the town, joined as rapidly as they could the main force upon the hill. In one way the Provincials had decidedly the better of the Englishmen. They knew every inch of the ground. The fords, the passes between the hills, the irregular roads through the

forest were as well known to them as if they had been the square of a city. The way in which these determined, but raw companies of men poured down into Lexington never ceased to amaze the Englishmen. As Smith marched back from Concord, he found every cross-road held by the Americans.

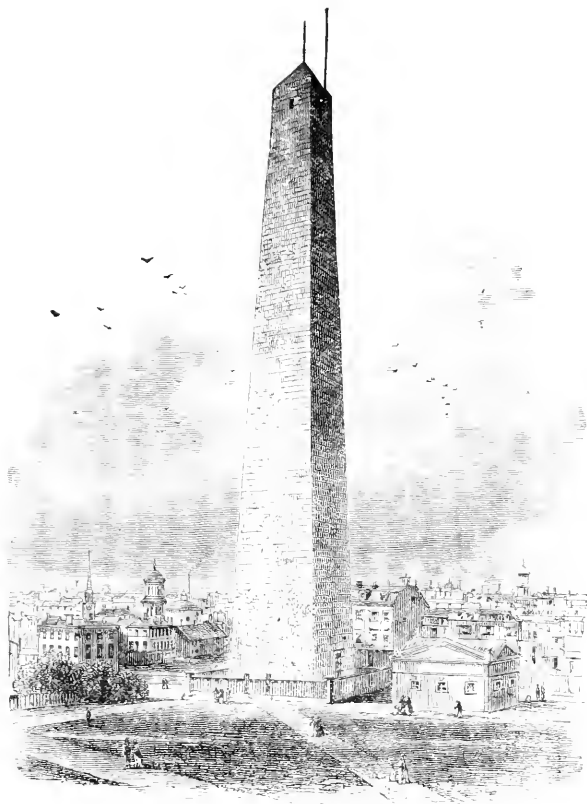
"They are trained," wrote General Gage, "to protect themselves behind stone walls; they seem to drop from the skies." Smith was badly wounded. His men returned to Lexington—a march of nearly eight miles—in two hours. The retreat from Lexington to Boston was a rout. There was not then, and there never could be, a question about English discipline or bravery, but now the men had no choice but to retreat in rapid disorder. The road seemed to be lined with men, between which the panting English had to run. Lord Percy, with the reinforcements, met them away below Lexington and guarded them with field-pieces, that they might rest for a time. They laid on the ground panting, in the midst of a hollow square he formed to shield them. The sun was going down when they reached Charlestown Neck, which leads into Boston. Beacon Hill was crowded with people watching for their return. The English posted their sentries on their side of Charlestown Neck and the Americans rested on the other side. The militia were ordered to lie on their arms at Cambridge. In that dreadful march the English lost sixty-five killed, one hundred and seventy-eight wounded and twenty-six missing. The loss of the Americans was forty-nine killed, thirty-six wounded and five missing.

The minutemen continued to pour down. They were stationed at Cambridge. The news of the attack at Lexington was carried from province to province. From New York it was sent to Virginia, from Virginia to the Carolinas, from the Carolinas to Georgia, while other messengers carried it in haste to Maine, New Hampshire and the "Grants," as Vermont was then called. When General Gage's forces were taken back to the barracks at Charlestown, the American army was in a condition to besiege Boston. All through the winter the patriots had been laying plans for the removing of the people from Boston in the event of a siege. They now asked permission of General Gage to take thirty families from the town daily. This he consented to, but the Tories of Boston finally persuaded him that if the American Whigs all left the city, they (the English) would probably burn the town. General Gage withdrew his consent to the evacuation, and the militia were obliged to besiege a town in which their own kinsmen were still living. Minutemen were posted in Cambridge, just outside of

Charlestown Neck, and in Roxbury. Works were thrown up on the Charles river and on the salt marshes. The only egress from Boston was guarded by a strong fort. General Artemas Ward, of Shrewsbury, was the chief officer of the American forces. Under him were Spencer, of Connecticut, Green, of Rhode Island, and Folsom, of New Hampshire. The works were all planned by Henry Knox, a young Boston bookseller, who had long been interested in military studies. He was helped by Gridley, a veteran of the French war. On the 4th of May there was a rumor that General Gage intended to march out, and all the minutemen near Boston were called into service, but nothing came of the matter, except that General Gage was given a chance to see how large a reserve force there was at the command of the enemy. On the 13th of May, General Israel Putnam marched an army of thirteen hundred men from Cambridge to Charlestown Neck, and from Charlestown to the ferry there. On the 27th, Putnam led a skirmish at an island northeast of Boston, in the harbor. The English, by this raid, lost a large number of sheep and cattle, besides a sloop and several men. There were several skirmishes of this character, in which the English were generally worsted. The Americans desired to get all the cattle off the islands and to provision themselves as well as possible for the coming conflict. In two of these skirmishes alone, Gage lost thirteen hundred sheep. On the 25th of May, Generals Howe, Clinton and Burgoyne came over from England with large reinforcements. When they reached Newport harbor they met a vessel, of which they asked the news. When they learned that Boston was being held by an army of ten thousand, and that the English garrison of five thousand was permitting the siege to continue, General Burgoyne cried, "Ten thousand peasants keep five thousand of the King's troops shut up? Let us get in and we will soon find elbow-room." After this, Burgoyne was oftener called "elbow-room" than anything else.

Boston is commanded by Charlestown on the north and by Dorchester heights on the south. Both parties were ambitious to occupy these heights. The English general laid explicit plans for the occupation of both of them. While the Englishmen were making their soldierly plans, the Americans, with less system, were marching to take possession of them. They desired to fortify Bunker Hill and command the harbor. After much consultation they finally fortified a spur of Bunker Hill, which was called Reed's Farm, and from which guns could sweep the harbor more effectually than they would if placed on the main hill. This hill was well fortified. Colonel Gridley marked out the lines of a

redoubt. An earthwork extended for a hundred rods to the north and stopped at the marshy place at the north side of the hill, where the marsh was thought a sufficient obstacle. This work was begun at mid-



BUNKER HILL MONUMENT

night and progressed steadily and quietly by the bright moonlight. It was some time after day-break before the commander of an English frigate saw the new fortification, and awoke the town with the fire

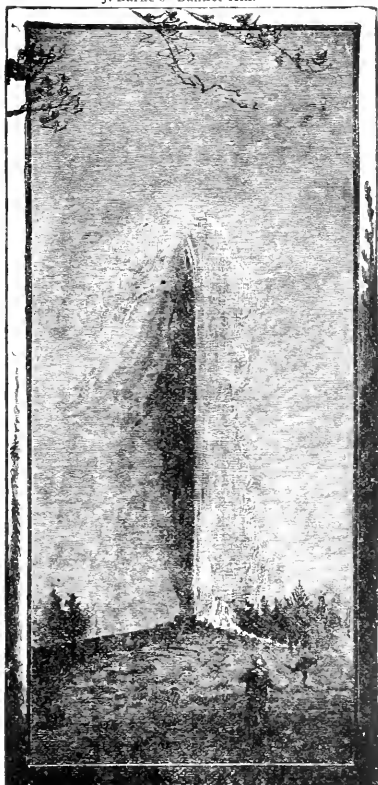
which he opened upon them. General Gage was soon up and talking with his officers about what had best be done. He was a brave man even to rashness. He decided to attack the American redoubt in front. He had been greatly reinforced since the day of Lexington, and had with him a reliable corps of generals, in whom he placed great confidence. But they were not ready to attack until the afternoon, and the American works were being strengthened every hour. Few of the Englishmen had been under fire, and at the first attack they broke ranks and ran. The second attack was as fatal, but in the third a weak spot was discovered in the American lines. This was pressed upon from the rear as well as the front. There would still have been no need of yielding upon the part of the Americans, had not their supply of powder given out. As it was, the Provincial forces were withdrawn to Bunker Hill. The English did not follow. From first to last the patriots had conducted the matter with great discretion. They had had the courage to stand still until the English were within a few feet of them and to be fired upon without replying until they could do so with effect. The enthusiastic American officers, most of whom had hung over the pages of Frederick the Great, knew almost as well what was the best policy as if they had had practical experience. It is said that at the battle of Prague the Prussian order was "no firing until you see the whites of their eyes." Prescott, who had studied the memoirs of the wars of Frederick the Great, gave this order at Bunker Hill, with the added instruction to "fire low" and to "fire at their waist-bands." That their small supply of powder held out so long was owing entirely to this economy, which required far more courage than vigorous action would have done.

The victory had been won at a terrible cost. The English had a force at the beginning of the battle of two thousand five hundred men, of whom one thousand and fifty-four were killed and wounded. Howe said, "They may talk of their Mindens and their Fontenoy's, but there was no such firing there." Among those killed was the brave Warren—who became a general on the very day of his death. In the fifty-second company, led by Howe, every man was killed or wounded. From that time till the close of the war, seven years later, the English were always careful of leading their troops against entrenched men. The American loss was one hundred and fifty killed, two hundred and seventy wounded and thirty prisoners. In a sense, the battle of Bunker Hill decided the war. For the future there could be no drawing back. The English were put upon their metal. They no longer deluded them-

selves with the belief that they were trying to quell a party of dissatisfied farmers. It was no longer possible for any man in the colonies to remain neutral. Personal matters were lost sight of. The money, time and brains of every one in the United Colonies were given up now to a struggle for the overthrow of oppression.

FOR FURTHER READING:

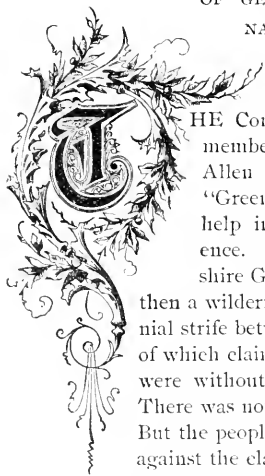
POETRY—Longfellow's "Ride of Paul Revere"
S. R. Bartlett's "Concord Fight"
Emmons' "The Battle of Bunker Hill,"
Sidney Lainer's "Battle of Lexington,"
Geo. H. Calvert's "Bunker Hill,"
W. C. Bryant's "'76,"
DRAMA—Breckenridge's "Bunker Hill,"
J. Burke's "Bunker Hill."



CHAPTER LI.

Liberty or Death.

ETHAN ALLEN AND THE GREEN MOUNTAIN BOYS—SURRENDER OF
TICONDEROGA—WASHINGTON CHOSEN COMMANDER-IN-
CHIEF—THE LACK OF POWDER—RECALL
OF GENERAL GAGE—SMALL
NAVAL CONQUESTS.



THE Continental Congress met on May 10th. Its members did not know that far in the north Ethan Allen and a band of Vermonters, known as the "Green Mountain Boys," were making efforts to help in the establishment of American independence. The country known as the New Hampshire Grants, otherwise our State of Vermont, was then a wilderness. For years it had been the site of colonial strife between New Hampshire and New York, both of which claimed the territory. The people of the grants were without regular government and had no village. There was not even a country store in the entire territory. But the people had formed a league for mutual protection against the claims of New York. This league was known by the name of the "Green Mountain Boys." They had a rude military organization which showed such systematic resistance to the law that a price was set upon the heads of the leaders. Ticonderoga and Crown Point, now held by the English, were considered by the people of the grants as the gates to New York. The officers of the Crown, who so frequently made their unjust demands on the farms scattered about the sides of the Green Mountains, made their headquarters at Ticonderoga, and the indignation of the Green Mountain Boys was especially leveled at that garrison. The first tidings of war that reached the North made the men anxious to do their part in freeing the country from the British tyranny which they had felt so



WASHINGTON TAKING COMMAND OF THE CONTINENTAL ARMY

keenly. John Brown, of Pittsfield, a lawyer, and one of the leading patriots, made a journey through the grants to Canada, for the purpose of learning what the sentiments of the Canadians were in regard to the approaching struggle. On returning to his home he felt justified in applying to the Committee of Safety, in Boston, for help. The stores at Ticonderoga were coveted, and Connecticut and Western Massachusetts were as anxious as the people of the grants to conquer the fort, which, it was understood, was thinly garrisoned and in a decayed condition. Colonel Parsons, of Connecticut, and Captain Benedict Arnold got three hundred pounds from the treasury on their own responsibility and set off with two men, one of whom had been an engineer in the British service. They conveyed northward permission from the Congress of Connecticut to lead the Green Mountain Boys against Ticonderoga. In the meantime, Ethan Allen, who had long been the chief of the Green Mountain Boys, had made ready for an attack. All the roads leading to the lake were guarded to prevent any one from carrying news to the fort. He knew nothing of the scheme which Benedict Arnold had laid, and on May 8, 1775, started with one hundred and forty men to go to the lake opposite Ticonderoga.

His plans had been craftily laid. A man by the name of Phelps had disguised himself as a countryman, and entered the fort on the pretext of wanting his face shaved. In a manner of great stupidity and curiosity he asked all the questions he wished, and left without being suspected. Thirty men had been detailed by Allen to capture the British camp and then to drop down the lake and join him. Allen had reached the point he desired, when Benedict Arnold came hurrying to the camp and announced that he was colonel and commander-in-chief of all the party. The officers took him into their confidence, showed him their plans, and tried to win his co-operation. Allen was in a hurry for action, and feared unless they moved quickly they would not be able to surprise the fort. Arnold insisted on taking entire command. Ethan Allen, brave, vain, and headstrong, was not likely to yield at the head of men whom he had organized. At length it was proposed that the two men should march together at the head of the column. This compromise was accepted, and a force of eighty-three men marched upon the fort. The garrison was asleep, and Allen hastened to the quarters of Captain Delaplace. The Captain leaped out of bed, crying: "By what authority?" "In the name of the Great Jehovah and the Continental Congress," said Allen. It doubtless went against the grain of the experienced soldier to yield to an uncouth,

awkward braggart, such as Allen must have seemed to him. But the garrison was asleep, himself unarmed, undressed, and at disadvantage. There was nothing for it but surrender. The stores and military material, including one hundred and twenty pieces of cannon, were captured. Crown Point was taken a little later.

The Continental Congress, during its session at Philadelphia, chose as Commander-in-chief of the American forces, George Washington, of Virginia. Artemas Ward, of Massachusetts, was to be his Major-General. Gates, of Virginia, his Adjutant-General. Charles Lee, an English officer, and Schuyler and Putnam, were also Major-Generals. Washington and Gates hastened to Cambridge, hearing on their way of the battle of Bunker Hill. It was the 2d of July when Washington and his friends arrived at Cambridge, and on the 4th of July he assumed command. His hurried but thorough investigation of the army, its plans and materials, showed him that their great danger lay in a lack of powder. In the thirteen States there was hardly enough for one general action. The apothecary shops in New York were searched for saltpetre. Letters were written in all directions, asking that it might be sent to headquarters, if only in the smallest quantities. A man of less tact than Washington might have started many feuds in the army for he had difficulty in getting his officers and Congress to always work in harmony. Unlike many of the men about him, he was a gentleman of high breeding, cultivated, politic, and experienced. The reputation which he had of being the best statesman and the richest man in Virginia won him the admiration of the people of the southern colonies, while, on the other hand, his directness and simplicity of speech, his gravity and sensible caution, endeared him to the northern men.

An attack from the English lines was dreaded. The Americans feared to be outnumbered. Of the sixteen thousand seven hundred and seventy-one New Englanders, nearly two thousand were sick or absent from duty. The American army was divided by the Charles river, over which there was but one small and insecure bridge. Orders were given to keep the minutemen in the towns in constant readiness and to sustain a thorough drill. But the English Generals had no intention of moving. The strain on them at Bunker Hill had been greater than the Americans guessed. The heat of the summer was hard on the wounded. In England it was thought that Gage was inexcusably languid, and he was recalled and practically disgraced. These matters hindered the attack of the English, which hindrance the

devoted New England men considered nothing less than providential. The Americans were making every effort to procure powder, lead, clothing and tents. Benjamin Franklin was on the Committee of Safety, in Philadelphia, and he was among the most active in the attempts to provide these necessary articles. Robert Livingstone, of New York, established a powder mill so secretly that none of the English spies round about found it out until Livingstone made a raid on the government's stock of saltpetre and carried it off. The Committee of Safety, in Georgia, got hold of a supply of powder intended for the Florida Indians. Several hundred barrels were captured from a trading vessel in the Gulf of Mexico. An attack was made on Bermuda and a goodly quantity secured there. In New Orleans, Oliver Pollock, an American, was sending powder to Pittsburg by the river. As soon as the English cruisers were taken away from the coast at the approach of autumn, the government sent an eighty-ton vessel to Bordeaux to buy powder on the account of "The Continent." The lead mines of Connecticut had been worked some, and the products were now used for ammunition. By the press of necessity a little navy was being started. On May 5th the people of New Bedford and Dartmouth, irritated at the *Falcon*, one of the British sloops of war, which hung about the coast, recaptured a vessel with fifteen prisoners which the *Falcon* had previously secured. On June 12th the *Margaretta*, an armed sloop belonging to the Crown, was taken off the main coast, as well as two other sloops of lesser size. Jeremiah O'Brien was made marine captain by the Provincial Congress of Massachusetts, and was stationed in Boston harbor to intercept supplies sent to the English troops. Washington supplied armaments and money from the Continental treasury and six small vessels received commissions. Both Connecticut and Rhode Island had a small vessel in the service.

The destitution of the English troops was becoming extreme. They were shut up in Boston by the activity of the Continental troops. Their supplies were being carried into the camp of the enemy, and sickness was rapidly increasing among them. But the forces under Washington were rapidly growing. In six weeks they had increased two thousand three hundred and ninety. Among them were several companies of riflemen from Virginia—men who could hit a target of seven inches at a distance of two hundred and fifty yards, while in rapid motion. But the Americans were unused to camp life, and sickness began to tell among them also. As soon as Washington received a sufficient supply of powder to justify action he advance his works to the

left by fortifying Plowed Hill. This brought the circle of his lines so that the extreme left was north of Boston. His headquarters were on the Charles river, just beyond Cambridge. The right wing, under General Ward, reached Dorchester Neck, directly south of Boston.

In October, Cape Ann, or what we now know as Gloucester, and Falmouth, now Portland, in Maine, were burned by the English. This was done by a fleet of armed vessels. The act seemed like a misfortune, but in reality it raised the Americans to a full understanding of what war meant. Previously they had hardly realized that they had laid themselves open to attack in any direction. They had believed that the conflict would be confined to Boston Bay. It was necessary to take active measures for meeting the enemy upon the sea as well as on the land. During the past few months the coast towns had been at the mercy of the English vessels. Newport had been threatened, and was only spared when it consented to furnish the commander of the English fleet with provisions. Bristol was bombarded, and many houses destroyed. A force landed on the island of Canonicut, in December, burned houses and barns, and carried off all the live stock. Washington was obliged to send down a detachment of men, although he could ill spare them. General Lee took a force of eight hundred to Newport, and not only placed them so that they could protect a considerable stretch of land, but so that they could keep a close watch upon the Tories of the district as well, who were suspected of carrying information to the enemy. It was not easy for the New Englanders to equip a fleet of war. But the work progressed steadily, if slowly. The first notable victory at sea was the taking of the brigantine *Nancy*, loaded with military stores. These were more than acceptable to the army. Washington was with difficulty keeping the soldiers with him. The term of enlistment of the Connecticut men had expired, and they were anxious to return to their homes. It was found that Dr. Benjamin Church, a member of the House in Massachusetts, was secretly writing letters to his brother-in-law in Boston, which revealed the condition and plans of the American army. He was expelled from the House and put in close confinement. Washington reorganized his army and issued a general order for the enlistment of new men. The corps of officers was pruned and improvements were made in all respects. On January 2, 1776, the army was practically a new one. At this time the army carried the national flag which we now have, with the exception of the number of stars, which were then but thirteen, in accordance with the number of the colonies. General Howe, shut up in Boston, met with many discour-

agements. Numerous accidents befell his provision ships. Some of them were taken by the enemy, and others met with severe storms and were obliged to discharge their cargoes. He even found difficulty in providing barracks for his troops during the winter season. He would have been glad to evacuate, but thought he had not transports enough to remove his force, and wrote to England for more help. He pulled down the Old North Church Meeting-house for fuel, and was obliged to mine for coal in Cape Breton. Faneuil Hall, to the great horror of the Bostonians when they heard of it, was used to hold theatrical entertainments in. General Burgoyne, who had at that time more fame as a literary man than as a soldier, wrote a little play which he called the "Siege of Boston." This was being performed, when a sergeant rushed upon the stage and cried that the Yankees were on Boston Hill. The audience laughed heartily, thinking it a part of the performance, but in a few moments the officers were ordered to hasten to their posts, and the audience broke up in confusion. It was true that some of the Connecticut companies had crossed the Neck, and fired the bakery of the English at Charlestown. In the midst of such alarm Burgoyne returned to England. The "elbow-room" which he had thought to make was not yet his. The American Congress, from time to time, had considered the advisability of setting fire to Boston, but this Washington was reluctant to do. He believed that if such a disaster could be avoided, it was best to do it. General Howe himself did not permit the destruction of property more than he could help.

Washington wished to cross to Boston on the ice, but in the council of war which he called he was outvoted. General Howe, on his part, sent a party on the ice to Dorchester Neck, who destroyed every house on the peninsula, and took some Americans prisoners. Washington would never have remained so inactive had he been supplied with powder and heavy artillery. He was almost in despair, when the capture of the *Nancy* renewed his hopes, and gave him ammunition. Benedict Arnold and Ethan Allen sent down the guns they had taken from Ticonderoga. Under the direction of Henry Knox, the cannon were put upon fifty-two sleds and drawn by long teams of men over the snow-covered passes of the Green Mountains and the rude roads of New England.

As soon as these reached Washington he called out all the militia of the neighborhood. Ten regiments reinforced him at once. Ward was given the over-sight of the movement upon Dorchester heights and entrusted the immediate command to John Thomas. The ground was

frozen and it was impossible to throw up works, but fascines were collected and made a fair defence. On the night of Saturday, March 7, 1776, the American works opened a cannonading at the north of Boston. This was kept up through the two following nights for the purpose of occupying the attention of the English. Meanwhile John Thomas' train, which consisted of twelve hundred men, took possession of a high hill upon Dorchester heights. Four hundred yoke of oxen drew the material for the works, passing within a mile of the English sentinels, who had no thought for anything but the cannonading at the north. In one night the men threw up a very good defence. The works had been planned by Gridley, who had been so successful with the plans of Bunker Hill. When Howe's astonished eyes saw these in the morning he thought they must have been built by twelve thousand men. The English fleet dared not remain under fire from these guns. Howe himself feared to attack the works. He notified Washington at once that if he would not molest the town or the ships, he would leave Boston peaceably. On the morning of Sunday, the 17th of March, he sailed with his whole army, after destroying all of his property which he could not take away. He found that in an emergency he had shipping enough to carry off his force. With Howe, sailed about eleven hundred loyalists, to whom the cause of the King was still dear. Many of these settled in Nova Scotia.

The few people left in Boston received the army as benefactors when they marched in with music and flying banners. Washington was treated with great courtesy, and the street up which he rode still bears his name. Congress ordered a gold medal to be presented to him—the first coin struck by independent America. Upon its face was a picture of besieged Boston with a group of horsemen in the foreground and the proud motto: "*Hostibus primo fugatis.*"

Washington believed that the next point of attack would be New York, and continued his preparations for an engagement there. For three months the country was left with hardly a foreign soldier on its soil.

FOR FURTHER READING:

- FICTION—H. Hagel's "Old Put."
 Hawthorne's "Septimius Felton."
 Cooper's "Lionel Lincoln."
 D. P. Thompson's "Green Mountain Boys."
 POETRY—"Song of the Vermonters," Anon.

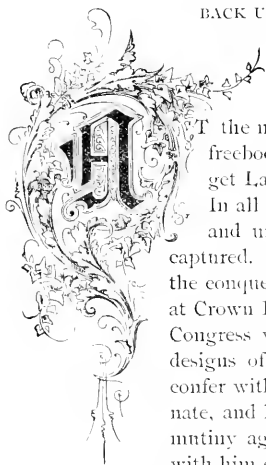


Zachary Taylor.

CHAPTER LII.

The Plains of Abraham.

THE DESIGNS FOR THE AMERICAN CONQUEST OF CANADA—MONTGOMERY'S MOVE AGAINST MONTREAL—ARNOLD'S FAILURE AT QUEBEC—THE UNION OF THE FORCES—THE SECOND DEFEAT AT MONTREAL—THE AMERICANS FALL BACK UPON TICONDEROGA AND CROWN POINT.



At the north, Arnold and Allen carried on a sort of freebooting together. They were ambitious to get Lake Champlain in the hands of the patriots. In all sea adventures Arnold was given the lead, and under his command an English sloop was captured. Encouraged by this, they laid a plan for the conquest of Canada. Arnold took up his quarters at Crown Point, and Allen remained at Ticonderoga. Congress was timid about seconding the ambitious designs of Arnold, and sent a committee of men to confer with him. They found him sullen and obstinate, and learned that his followers were in a state of mutiny against the government, and willing to side with him even at the cost of patriotism. A thousand men had been assigned by Connecticut to garrison Ticonderoga. When Arnold learned that these were to be commanded by Colonel Hinman, he resigned, as he was not willing to be second in command.

The Governor of Canada was determined to retake Ticonderoga and Crown Point. As for the Canadians themselves, they were in a state of comparative indifference. The richer element was probably truer to the king than were the common people. The Indians of the Mohawk valley had been estranged from the Americans, and were now the allies of the Canadians. There was a call for volunteers on the part of the American Congress, and, meanwhile, Ethan Allen and Major John

Brown were sent into the country between Lake Champlain and Montreal, to discover the true condition of affairs there. Schuyler was Commander-in-chief of all the northern forces, and about the middle of August, 1775, was ready to move his troops. Altogether, these did not number quite two thousand. Schuyler's chief subordinate officer was General Richard Montgomery, a young Irishman of much soldierly experience and strong personal attractions. He was with Wolfe at the capture of Quebec, in 1759, and had further won the confidence of the Americans by marrying one of the ladies of the patriotic Livingstone family. No general among the Americans was more popular with the soldiers. Schuyler fell ill shortly after leaving Ticonderoga, and the command devolved upon Montgomery. In the light skirmish in which the conflict opened, Montgomery was thoroughly disheartened by the cowardice of his soldiers. The troops were raw and undisciplined. They suffered not alone from bodily ailment, but from intense homesickness. Boston men, fighting for the protection of their homes, and in the face of a brave and determined enemy, had plenty to keep up their spirits. But to fight in the midst of a wilderness for the possession of a fortification, with winter approaching, and a poor outlook for provisions, could not but be dispiriting to men who were new to the profession of arms, and cared little for conflict in the abstract—men who had not even learned the value of subordination and discipline.

Allen himself, though a brave man, was a bad soldier in some ways. He had never learned the necessity of waiting for orders, and was quick to do whatever his impulse prompted. When he was on his way to join Montgomery's camp, with a force of eighty Indians, he fell in with Major Brown, who had two hundred men in his party. These two leaders decided to attack Montreal. They had heard that there were no more than thirty men in garrison at that point, and that the townspeople sympathized with the Americans. The plan was for them to attack the city with two columns of men, above and below. The river was crossed in a blustering storm, and Allen's band, at early dawn, stood shivering upon the river bank waiting for Brown's men, who never came. The garrison set upon Allen, killed a number of his men, and carried others as prisoners to England. Among these unfortunates was Allen himself.

The American expedition against the fort of Chambly was successful. The inhabitants round about aided in its capture. The stores of ammunition and provisions were taken to the army encamped under the walls of St. John. An attempt on the part of the English to relieve the

garrison there was repulsed and the fort was finally surrendered, principally because the provisions had given out. By this surrender five hundred regular troops, the greater part of the British army in Canada, fell into the hands of the Americans. Montgomery believed that the time had now come to take Montreal. He posted forces so that all communication would be prevented between that city and Quebec. Upon both sides of the river he planted batteries. On the 13th of November he marched into the town, without bloodshed, the Governor and the garrison having left. In the meantime, Washington had sent up a supporting party, numbering eleven hundred men. These were well equipped, although, from the nature of the journey, they could carry no field-pieces. Washington himself had outlined the expedition. He desired them to ascend the Kennebec river, cross the highlands that divided it from the Chaudiere, and descend that stream to where it enters the St. Charles, nearly opposite Quebec. Washington had a hand-bill printed, which was distributed among the Canadians for the purpose of impressing upon them the friendly spirit of the Americans and begging them to join in the cause of liberty and assist in driving the British from America. With the men who had the country's interests most at heart the conflict in Canada was not a side issue, but an important part of the war. They set a high value upon that extensive and fertile country, with its magnificent rivers and superior natural advantages.

But Washington expected far too much of Arnold and his men. He desired them to meet Schuyler's army, which was then in motion, and to take but twenty days for a march of two hundred miles. It took, instead, sixty days, and the little army of eleven hundred men had been reduced to about one-half when it reached the St. Charles. Their boats had been swamped in the treacherous Chaudiere; they had marched through bogs and were forced to make exhausting portages, carrying their heavy loads with them; they had a fatal lack of acquaintance with the country, and were out of provisions long before they reached their destination, and were obliged to eat shaving soap, candles, salve and dogs, even boiling their moccasins in the hopes of getting some nourishment from them. The horrors of the march are sickening, and not the least shocking scene was when Arnold, who had hurried on to procure provisions, sent back cattle and other supplies to his starving men. They ate like wild beasts, and many of them died from the effects of their indiscretion. It took them ten days to march the last thirty miles after they had entered Canada, for, although the

road was now comparatively easy, the men were too exhausted to go far in a day. During that last delay, one hundred men, mostly carpenters, had come down from Newfoundland and were busy repairing the defenses of Quebec. By the time Arnold was in a position for attack, soldiers were brought down the river and had prepared for the defense of the city. Washington had relied upon the surprise of Quebec, but Arnold had himself given information of his movements by a letter which he entrusted to a faithless guide.

On the 13th of November, the very day that Montgomery entered Montreal, Arnold took his men over the same ground that Wolfe had taken, and in the morning had an army on the plains of Abraham, behind Quebec. But the English did not, as Montcalm had done, respond to the challenge. There was no revolt in the city—a thing which both Arnold and Washington had counted upon. Arnold had not the power to make a breach in the walls near the city. The garrison was shortly reinforced, and Arnold was obliged to break camp and retreat to Point Aux Trembles. Here Montgomery joined him on the 1st of December and took the command. The army now consisted of three thousand men, with six field-pieces and five light mortars. They encamped before Quebec. Deep snow lay over all the country, and as it was impossible to build earthworks, Montgomery had fascines set up. These were filled with snow, over which water was poured, making a barricade of ice. It looked cruel and forbidding, but the first cannonading broke it in pieces. The men were encamped there for three weeks. Montgomery found them hard to manage, and on Christmas day decided that an attack should be made under cover of the first stormy night. The plans were elaborately laid. Arnold was to penetrate the lower town, Montgomery to advance to the rocky heights of Cape Diamond and reach the upper town by an easy communication. Aaron Burr had charge of a forlorn hope which was to scale the Cape Diamond bastion. The night of the 30th, as had been hoped, was dark and stormy. Montgomery's men made their way over blocks of ice and through the drifting snow till they reached the barricades under Cape Diamond. The Americans crowded past this and Montgomery urged on the advance, but as they neared the block-house, which was pierced for muskets, the brave young leader was killed, just as he cried, "Push on, brave boys. Quebec is ours." Two captains and two privates were killed at the same moment, and the Americans retreated in disorder. Arnold's men, under cover of the storm, had reached the palace gate, but here at the first barricade Arnold was wounded.

Morgan, a Virginian, at the head of his riflemen, took the lead, and sealed the barricade with ladders. He was knocked down once; he mounted again at the head of his men. He carried the barricade and drove the enemy into the houses at the sides of the street. If he could have had reinforcements, he would have carried the day; but the odds were too heavy. He tried to cut his way out, but was surrounded on all sides and obliged to surrender. He had four hundred and sixty-six men with him at the time. The Englishmen buried Montgomery within the city. Forty-two years later his body was given to the Americans, who carried it, with great honors, to New York and raised a monument to his memory in front of St. Paul's Church. His wife, then a very old woman, sat alone upon the porch of her house on the Hudson, watching the funeral boat as it sailed by.

The discouraged army was now placed under the command of Arnold, who begged Schuyler for reinforcements. In the course of the winter three thousand were sent to him. The English were afraid to risk an engagement against so heavy a force of men. The Canadians took neither one part or the other, with a few exceptions. A commission, consisting of Benjamin Franklin and four other gentlemen, one of whom was afterwards Archbishop of Baltimore, was sent to visit Canada and see if a political union could not be made, but they had scarcely reached Montreal when news came of a British fleet at Quebec, and Franklin hurried back to Philadelphia to urge the great need of reinforcements. These came in March, under General Wooster, who tried for two months to make an impression upon the fortifications of Quebec. He failed, not from lack of courage, but from want of military experience. Major-General Thomas took his place, and decided that it was wisest to retreat. He was not permitted to do even this unmolested. He lost one hundred men as prisoners, as well as most of his stores and provisions. In a number of small engagements which followed between detachments of both armies, the English troops were successful. Brigadier-General John Sullivan was sent to take the place of John Thomas, who, it was believed, retreated with unnecessary readiness. A last stand was made and an engagement fought, but the English had three times more men than the Americans, and one hundred and fifty of Sullivan's men were taken prisoners. They were obliged to fall back upon Ticonderoga and Crown Point.

FOR FURTHER READING

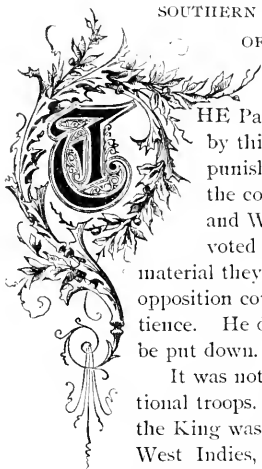
FICTION—Gleig's "A Day on the Neutral Ground." "In Chelsea Prison."

DRAMA—"The Death of General Montgomery in Storming Quebec." Anon.

CHAPTER LIII.

The Palmetto Trees.

THE FEELING IN ENGLAND—THE HIRING OF THE HESSIANS—ATTITUDE OF NEW YORK—THE CONFLICT WITH THE SOUTHERN COLONIES—THE DEFENSE OF FORT MOULTRIE.



THE Parliament in England was thoroughly aroused by this time to the importance of subduing and punishing the rebels in America. The friends of the colonies in Parliament, Edmund Burke, Barre, and Wilbur, protested against the measure which voted the King and ministry all the men and material they should need in carrying on the war, but no opposition could stem the tide of King George's impatience. He decided that the disorders in America must be put down.

It was not so easy as he had supposed to obtain additional troops. Men could not be found in England, and the King was forced to draw upon his garrisons in the West Indies, Ireland and Gibraltar. Even then the number was not sufficient for the successful carrying on of the war, and King George was forced to beg of friendly nations for help. To his surprise, some of these nations which he had felt sure he could count upon, refused him. The reply from Holland was that the States-General considered the Americans worthy of every man's esteem, and looked upon them as a brave people, defending in a becoming, manly and religious manner those rights which, as men, they derived from God, not from the legislature of Great Britain, and that if soldiers were to be brought against them, the States-General of Holland preferred to see Janizaries hired rather than soldiers of a free State. Russia, for different reasons, refused help. Frederick the Great had little sympathy with the English movement, and practically did not believe that a great State should have colonies which were severed from

it by natural obstacles. In short, the sympathy throughout Europe was with the Americans. The foreign troops which George III finally obtained were from the petty German princes. Among these men there was little voluntary service, but almost all, with the exception of the officers, were impressed, and a small price per head was paid by England to the German potentates for their services. There were 29,166 men in the German troops sent to America.

The English and Americans agreed that the campaign for 1776 must center at New York City. As soon as news of Concord and Lexington had reached New York the people had taken immediate steps to defend the city. The feeling there had, from the first, been as strong as elsewhere. The year previous, when the British garrison there had been ordered to join the army in Boston, the citizens consented to let them embark unmolested, but as the troops marched down Broad street, led by five carts loaded with arms, they were stopped by Marinos Willett, a "Son of Liberty." He seized the first horse by the head and brought the whole line to a stand-still. When the commanding officer asked what he meant by the interruption, he replied that it had been agreed that the troops should embark without molestation, but they had not been given permission to take away arms to use against their friends in Massachusetts. The mayor of the city and Governor Morris protested against Willett's high-handed proceeding, but the sympathy of the crowd was with him, and the English were forced to leave without their arms. He then addressed the soldiers, and said if any of them were willing to join the ranks of liberty and desert their ranks they should be protected. One soldier only responded to the invitation, and was marched off with much cheering by the crowd.

The Americans helped themselves to the cannon at the Battery, and placed them along the Hudson to protect the river, now that the conflict of '76 seemed to threaten that point. Lee was ordered by Washington to take command at New York. This was not a little alarming to the Tories of the town, who feared that this decisive action would bring about immediate hostilities, and that the place might be bombarded by the English vessels lying off the coast. There were hot internal dissensions in the city. The conflict between the Whigs and Tories was very bitter. The Tories were powerful and rich, but the Whigs outnumbered them, and had on their side that fierce determination and sense of religious right which gave them their strength from the beginning to the end of the conflict. It must be owned that their treatment of the Tories was not Christian. Some of the Tories were tarred and feathered,

some were waylaid, mobbed and insulted, while others were deprived of office and driven from home. Laws were enacted which inflicted penalties of great severity on them. It is estimated that during the course of the Revolution more than twenty-five thousand loyalists joined the military service and arrayed themselves against the patriots.

The defenses of the city which the Whigs prepared, were, as can easily be imagined, accomplished under constant protest from a large portion of the inhabitants. When Lee assumed command of affairs at New York he turned all of the city into a camp of war, and presented as bold a face toward the threatened harbor as was possible. The works were strengthened, batteries were wisely placed, and the streets well barricaded. On March 6, 1776, Congress divided the southern and middle colonies into two military departments. Lee was sent south and Lord Stirling given the command of affairs at New York. He carried on Lee's work with the utmost vigor. Every male inhabitant of the town was put to work on the fortifications—rather rough work for some of the ostentatious gentlemen of New York. Washington himself arrived in the city on April 13, and took up his headquarters there. Families began leaving the town as rapidly as possible and the soldiers took possession of the dwellings which they abandoned.

The British had other plans besides the capture of New York. They were anxious to move against the southern colonies, where they believed submission could be easily enforced. The Governors of Virginia and North Carolina labored under the delusion that most of the people in those colonies were loyal to the King's cause. Each Governor was provided with a small force to back his authority, and the King sent seven regiments to strengthen them. These he himself selected with great care. They were led by Earl Cornwallis, while the fleet was commanded by Admiral Peter Parker. When they reached America, General Clinton was given the general command. The colonists who stood by Governor Martin, of North Carolina, were Scotch loyalists, chiefly Highlanders, who had emigrated to America after the defeat of the Pretender, and who still held to their oath of allegiance. The son and husband of Flora McDonald were among their leaders, and with them were a large number of Stuarts. But the sturdy Scotch Presbyterians in the back counties took up arms for the patriots, and the Governor soon realized that matters were not to run as smoothly as he had expected. As soon as the Provincial militia heard of the mustering of McDonald's clans, they arrayed themselves to prevent them from

reaching the Governor. They were led by Brigadier-General James Moore, who had with him many gentlemen of wealth and influence. These walked in the ranks with the common soldiery, to keep up the spirits of the men. Moore's force numbered two hundred less than McDonald's. In the first engagement the loyalists were routed. Eight hundred and fifty men were taken prisoners, disarmed and discharged and fifteen hundred excellent rifles were secured, besides a quantity of money, and, what was equally valuable, a chest of medicine. This was practically the end of Toryism in North Carolina. Within two weeks the patriots had ten thousand men in arms, these prompt measures securing peace for North Carolina until 1780. The State was at liberty to give its aid to the other colonies.

The next attempt was upon South Carolina. From the first, this province had felt much sympathy with Massachusetts, and was now prompt to arise for the defense of her own border. The militia was ready to move at the earliest call. Those on the border of North Carolina were held in readiness to join the southern men, should it be necessary. Colonel Christopher Gadsden and William Moultrie were in command of the regular troops. William Thompson led a regiment of riflemen, all of whom were excellent marksmen—the Colonel the best of them all. North Carolina sent down a regiment to join them, without even waiting to be requested. The first thing seen to was the securing of Charleston harbor, for it was known that Clinton could do nothing without the aid of the men-of-war, and that these men-of-war could do nothing unless they held possession of the harbor. There were already some defences there, and these were hurriedly strengthened. Sullivan's Island, a long, marshy strip of ground, well wooded, guarded the entrance to the harbor. Opposite was James Island, which was practically a part of the main coast. Gadsden was put on James Island and Moultrie and Thompson were put upon Sullivan's. Pennsylvania had sent down a force of men under the command of Armstrong, and these were placed near the city of Charleston. Every preparation possible was made in the town. Warehouses were torn down that the cannon might have full sweep. The streets were barricaded. All the horses, wagons and boats were impressed into service, and all the lead in the city was made up into bullets, the very weights of the windows being used. On the 4th of June, General Lee arrived and assumed command. The brunt of affairs rested, however, upon Colonel Moultrie, who was working to complete his fortifications on Sullivan's Island. His men worked upon it night and day. But only the two

sides fronting the channel were completed when the enemy attacked. These walls, however, were sixteen feet thick and guarded with palmetto logs. Into their tough and spongy fibres the balls could sink without doing harm. In the centre of the fort was a marsh, which the men left undisturbed, knowing that shells would be much less apt to explode if they fell into it.

On the 31st of May the enemy appeared. Messengers were sent for the militia in all directions. The women and children were hastened out of the city. The slaves were set to completing the works. Every freeman worked of his own accord. Lee, and other soldiers as well, had little confidence that Moultrie's fort could stand out against the heavy guns of the enemy. But Moultrie himself was confident. The land forces of the enemy landed on Long Island, which lay north of Sullivan's. These were to attack in the flank and rear while the fleet bombarded the fort in front. Thompson's sharpshooters were to oppose the land forces. The English had two 56-gun ships, five frigates of twenty-eight guns each, a mortar ship and two smaller vessels, bearing in all two hundred guns. The bombardment was continuous after it once began, the shot streaming steadily against the side of the fort. But the spongy palmetto logs could not be split and the banks of sand kept them from being dislodged. The shells, as had been expected, fell into the marsh and seldom exploded. Colonel Moultrie was inside nursing a gouty foot and calmly smoking as he gave orders to his intrepid men. More gallant defense could not have been made. When the flag of the fort—a blue banner with a silver crescent, bearing the word liberty—was shot away, Sergeant William Jasper leaped the parapet and, in the midst of the hottest fire, replaced it on the bastion. The men aboard the ships suffered terribly. Three vessels ran aground, and one of them was deserted and burned. Early in the evening the ships withdrew two miles from the island. Clinton had directed his forces at the north side of Sullivan's Island, but was held in check there by Thompson. A victory could not have been more absolute. Moultrie was accounted one of the successful commanders of the army. The fort was named after him, and his regiment was presented with a pair of beautiful banners.

FOR FURTHER READING.

- HISTORY—Carrington's "Battles of the Revolution."
Coffin's "Boys of '76."
Moultrie's "Memoirs of the American Revolution."
Ramsay's "American Revolution in South Carolina."
POETRY—Robert M. Charlton's "Death of Jasper." (See Ford's
Historical Poems.)

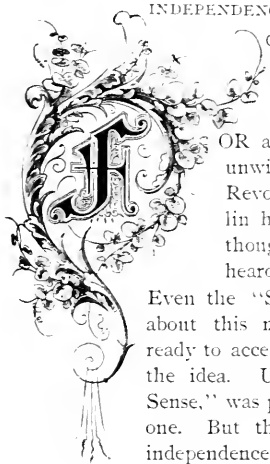


SIGNING THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

CHAPTER LIV.

The Sons of Liberty.

THE GROWTH OF A DESIRE FOR INDEPENDENCE—THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE—THE FORMING OF STATE CONSTITUTIONS.



FOR a long time the people of America were unwilling to admit, even to themselves, that the Revolution was a war for independence. Franklin himself assured Pitt, in March, 1775, that, though he had traveled in America, he had never heard any expression in favor of independence.

Even the "Sons of Liberty" were unwilling to talk about this matter, feeling that the people were not ready to accept it. The newspapers openly denounced the idea. Until Thomas Paine's book, "Common Sense," was published, the subject was almost a tabooed one. But that pamphlet presented a strong plea for independence. Men, women and children read it. It was for them an education—a liberator from old preju-

judices. It gave them fresh ideas and fresh courage. The different States began to urge Congress to take a more decided position. Samuel Adams, "the Father of American Independence," saw that at last the country was reaching the point which he had so long been hoping for. Resolutions were passed in each Colonial Assembly which heralded the "Declaration of Independence." On the second day of July, 1776, the Thirteen States, assembled in Congress, resolved unanimously "that the thirteen colonies are, and of right ought to be, independent States." Following this came deep deliberations. The matter was one in which there could be no hurry. All knew that if the position was once taken, it would be impossible to draw back from it. There were many delegates to the Congress who did not fully understand the situation, and who asked that all the consequences of such a step might be fully

pointed out to them. This John Adams did, eloquently and clearly. At last all of the members signed the Declaration, except the delegation from New York, which had not been empowered to do so. But it is possible that there were many who signed with reluctance and regret. John Adams was elated. He wrote to his wife that the day had been the most memorable epoch in the history of America, and that it should be celebrated by succeeding generations as a great anniversary festival. "It ought to be solemnized," said he, "with pomp and parade, with games, sports, guns, bells, bonfires and illuminations, from one end of the country to the other, from this time forward forever more;" and so till now it has been, though on the fourth of July instead of the second. Thomas Jefferson prepared the original draft of the Constitution, although he was indebted to the resolutions passed by the several colonies for some of his best ideas and expressions. The clause relating to slavery, which Jefferson had written, was cut out. Had it remained, it might have had its influence in a matter which plunged the nation into a yet more dreadful war than the Revolution, nearly a hundred years later. It was not until the eighth that the Declaration was read, and printed copies distributed. A great concourse of people gathered about the observatory of the State House, in Philadelphia, and here the Declaration was read to them from the balcony by John Nixon, a member of the "Committee of Safety."

THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

In Congress, July 4, 1776.

THE UNANIMOUS DECLARATION OF THE THIRTEEN UNITED STATES OF AMERICA:

When, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bonds which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation. We hold these truths to be self-evident: That all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; that to secure these rights governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or abolish it, and to institute a new government,

laying its foundations on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and, accordingly, all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpation, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such a government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient suffering of these colonies, and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former system of government. The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these States. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operations till his assent should be obtained; and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other laws for the accomodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature—a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable and distant from the repository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly for opposing, with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected, whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise, the State remaining, in the meantime, exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without and convulsions within.

He has endeavored to prevent the population of these States—for that purpose, obstructing the laws for the naturalization of foreigners, refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us, in time of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislatures.

He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our Constitution and unacknowledged by our laws, giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation: for quartering large bodies of armed troops among us; for protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these States; for imposing taxes on us without our consent; for depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury; for transporting us beyond the seas to be tried for pretended offences; for abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies; for taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the forms of governments; for suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatever.

He has abdicated government here by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burned our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation and tyranny already begun, with circumstances of cruelty and perſidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow-citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrection among us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers the merciless Indian savages,

whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished slaughter of all ages, sexes and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms. Our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Not have we been wanting in attention to our British brethren. We have warned them from time to time of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them by the ties of a common kindred to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our communications and correspondence. They too have been deaf to the voice of justice and consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind—enemies in war, in peace, friends.

We, therefore, representatives of the United States, in general congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the World for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and in the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, that these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that as free and independent States, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things which independent States may of right do. And for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

JOHN HARTWELL

New Hampshire.—Josiah Bartlett, William Whipple, Matthew Thornton.

Massachusetts Bay.—Samuel Adams, John Adams, Robert Treat Paine, Elbridge Gerry.

Rhode Island, &c.—Stephen Hopkins, William Ellery.

Connecticut.—Robert Sherman, Samuel Huntington, William Williams, Oliver Wolcott.

New York.—William Floyd, Philip Livingston, Francis Lewis, Lewis Morris.

New Jersey.—Richard Stockton, John Witherspoon, Francis Hopkinson, John Hart, Abraham Clark.

Pennsylvania.—Robert Morris, Benjamin Rush, Benjamin Franklin, John Morton, George Clymer, James Smith, George Taylor, James Wilson, George Ross.

Delaware.—Cæsar Rodney, George Read, Thomas M. Kean.

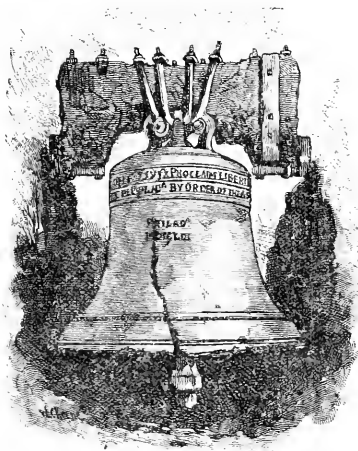
Maryland.—Samuel Chase, William Paca, Thomas Stone, Charles Carroll, of Carrollton.

Virginia.—George Wythe, Richard Henry Lee, Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Harrison, Thomas Nelson, Jr., Francis Lightfoot Lee, Carter Braxton.

North Carolina.—William Hooper, Joseph Hewes, John Penn.

South Carolina.—Edward Rutledge, Thomas Hayward, Jr., Thomas Lynch, Jr., Arthur Middleton.

Georgia.—Button Gwinnett, Lyman Hall, George Walton.



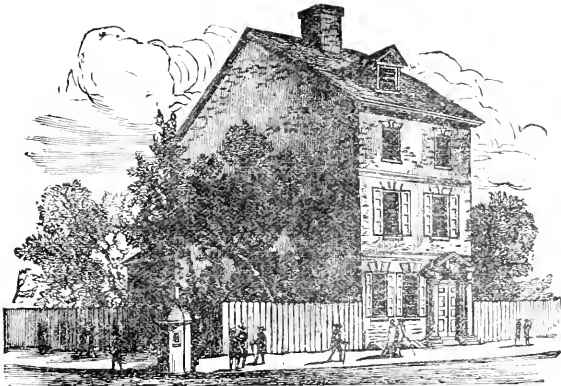
OLD LIBERTY BELL.

Through the country, wherever the declaration was received, it awoke great excitement. In New York, a mob pulled down the gilded leaden equestrian statue of King George. The head was severed from the body and wheeled in a barrel to the Governor's house. The rest of the statue was moulded by a company of ladies into forty-two

thousand bullets, which were to be shot at the King's soldiers. Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina adopted State constitutions in 1776; New York, South Carolina and Georgia in 1777; Massachusetts in 1780 and New Hampshire in 1781. Connecticut and Rhode Island continued to use their royal charters as the law of the States. Not till 1818 did Connecticut adopt a State constitution, and Rhode Island waited until 1840. Few of the constitutions admitted religious liberty. The constitution of South Carolina said "that no person shall be capable of holding any place of honor, trust or profit under the authority of this State, who is not a member of some church of the established religion thereof." The constitution of Pennsylvania required every member of the legislature to declare not only his belief in the existence of a God who is a rewarder of good and a punisher of evil, but also to believe that the Scriptures are given by Divine inspiration. The constitution of New Hampshire stipulated that the members of its legislature should be of the Protestant religion. The constitution of Massachusetts provided against luxury, plays, extravagant expense in dress, diet, and the like. Every minister or public teacher of religion was obliged, in Massachusetts, to read the Constitution to his congregation once a year.

FOR FURTHER READING

- HISTORY—Winsor's "Readers' Handbook of the Revolution."
 BIOGRAPHY—Goodrich's "Lives of Signers of the Declaration."
 FICTION—John Neal's "Seventy-six."
 H. C. Watson's "Old Ball of Independence."
 POETRY—Charles Sprague's "Fourth of July." (see Ford's Historical Poem.)

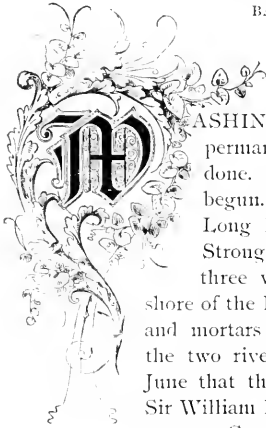


HOUSE IN WHICH THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE WAS SIGNED

CHAPTER LV.

The Continentals.

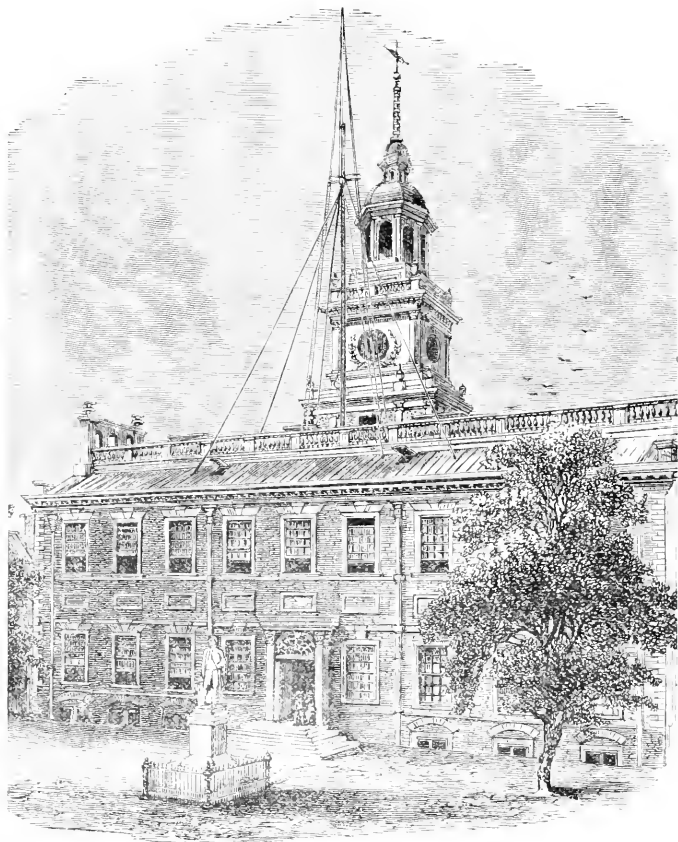
WASHINGTON AT NEW YORK—ARRIVAL OF THIRTY-TWO THOUSAND
BRITISH TROOPS—OVERTURES FOR PEACE BY THE
BRITISH—BATTLE OF LONG ISLAND—THE
BATTLE OF HARLEM HEIGHTS—DE-
STRUCTION OF NEW YORK—
BATTLE OF WHITE
PLAINS.



WASHINGTON was anxious to hold New York permanently, and he believed that it could be done. He continued the work which Lee had begun. Governor's Island, Fort Stirling and Long Island were well fortified and manned. Strong works were built upon the Palisades and three water batteries were also built along the shore of the Hudson. By June eighty pieces of cannon and mortars were mounted, bearing upon the bay and the two river channels. It was not until the last of June that the enemy arrived. The first to come was Sir William Howe, commander-in-chief, with his Boston army. Governor Tryon, of New York, and many loyalists, went out to meet him. The troops followed in one hundred and thirty ships, and by June 29th all were in the bay. They debarked upon Staten Island, and here the General took up his headquarters. Admiral Howe, Sir William's brother, followed with some troops, and on August 12th the Hesssian arrived. These forces numbered altogether thirty-two thousand men. Washington had upon his rolls about nineteen thousand. Under Howe's command were many distinguished officers, men of high breeding, intelligence and bravery. The English and Hesssian soldiers were well trained. De Heister, the general of the Hesssians, had been

in many European campaigns. Among the Hessians was a famous company of sharpshooters, under Donop. Even those Hessians who had come against their will and who were not used to bearing arms had still warlike traditions, and they were surrounded by such good material that their inexperience did not greatly lessen the strength of the force. As for Washington's men, they were made up of farmers, merchants, ministers and mechanics. They were brave, but lacking in discipline and an understanding of war. They were without uniforms, a thing which is always depressing to the soldier, and were poorly equipped, the old flint-lock piece being the common arm. Bayonets were few. These men, in motley array, presented but a poor contrast to the elegantly costumed Englishman, and the Hessian, with his brass-pointed cap, his brass-hilted sword and glittering bayonet. General Washington's headquarters overlooked the Hudson, near Varick. Admiral Howe and his brother said that they had come bringing the olive branch of peace, and on July 14th sent a flag of truce up the bay with a letter to the commander-in-chief. The generals sent out to receive this letter found that it was addressed to George Washington, Esq., and returned it with the remark that there was no such man in the American army. On the 20th another flag of truce was sent up with a message to his Excellency, General Washington. This was received and read with attention, but Washington could entertain no proposition for peace which did not acknowledge American independence. An interview was held between Lord Howe and a committee of Congress, which came to nothing, because Howe had not been empowered by the King to admit the independence of the colonies. On August 20th all of the British troops were moved over to Long Island. The sight was an exhilarating one. Nearly ninety boats and flat-boats were filled with the best troops of the army, the glittering arms, the artillery and handsome horses, making a display which that harbor has never seen excelled. Fifteen thousand men took possession of the roads of the island and occupied the Dutch village, while General Cornwallis and Donop's sharpshooters drove back the Pennsylvania riflemen who had been patrolling the coast. General Green was in command of the Americans at Long Island, and had surrounded himself with strong earthworks thrown up in what is now the heart of Brooklyn. On what is now Washington Park stood Fort Putnam, at the crown of the hill. The ridge of hills which lay between the Brooklyn lines and the coast of Gravesend Bay was made the outer line of defense by Washington. Several regiments were brought over from New York to reinforce the Brooklyn wing. General

Green was ill with a fever which was raging among the soldiers, and his command fell upon General Sullivan. Early on the morning of August 27th the American guards were unexpectedly attacked by the



INDEPENDENCE HALL.

English. The day had not yet broken, and in the confusion the American pickets retreated, leaving their major a prisoner with the

enemy. Reinforcements soon arrived and the men held to a steady resistance, although most of them were untried and raw. Against the seventeen hundred inexperienced troops of Lord Stirling were placed at least six thousand English veterans. The Americans took advantage of an orchard near by and the heavy growth of hedges to protect them. Stirling was making a fair defense, when Generals Clinton, Cornwallis, Howe and Earl Percy came up with their men. These marched well around the American lines before they were observed. Two battalions fell into the hands of the English. The rest of the Americans retreated toward the Brooklyn camp, fighting as they went. General Sullivan was captured. The Hessians marched on rapidly after the retreat had begun, attacking the broken detachments. Ten thousand British and four thousand Hessians chased less than three thousand Americans through the woods and over the hills of Long Island, but most of the Americans succeeded in getting behind the works. Stirling still held the field with an organized force. They were surrounded and obliged to surrender to the Hessian commander, De Heister. Two other regiments were captured as well. The English loss was three hundred and seventy-seven officers and soldiers. The American loss in killed and wounded was less than three hundred, but they had given between eight hundred and one thousand prisoners into the hands of the enemy.

On the afternoon of the 29th a council of the general officers met Washington, and it was decided to retreat from Long Island. For twelve hours the troops were ferried across, in the midst of serious interruptions. There was still doubt as to whether it would be wise to continue the defense of New York, and at one time the Americans thought seriously of burning it before they deserted it. For two weeks there was comparative quiet. Had Howe chosen, he might have destroyed New York himself, but he, as well as Washington, concluded that it would be wiser to let it remain unharmed. Washington, after considering how insubordinate his soldiers were becoming, concluded not to continue the defence of New York. The men were sadly discouraged by the disaster at Long Island, and they were neither well paid nor well fed. The disorders were many, and some of the men were so homesick that, though they remained faithful to their posts, they could not be relied upon for vigorous fighting. Fortunately, Washington's call for fresh men was responded to and he was able to allow some of his disabled men to return to their homes. On the 2d of February Washington's army numbered less than twenty thousand

New York was to be evacuated on the 15th, and the activity of the city for a few days previous could easily be observed by the English. Howe was prompt to move his ships up closer to the city, and about 10 o'clock on the morning of the day appointed for the removal, these ships opened fire. Under cover of this, Donop's Hessian sharpshooters crossed to New York and chased the Americans over the fields to Murray Hill. Washington and his men rode out in a vain attempt to rally the militia. Even those of the men who were willing to fight, could make no stand against the headlong and terrified rout of the majority. Washington was worked up to one of those fierce spasms of anger for which narrow-minded people have so often criticised him. It is said that he drew his sword and threatened to run some fugitives through, and that he laid his cane over many of the officers who showed their men the example of running. He dashed his hat on the ground and cried, "Are these the men with whom I am to defend America." So disgusted was he and so regardless of his life, that had not one of his attendants seized his horse's reins and turned him toward Harlem Heights, the General would probably have fallen into the enemy's hands. It is said that Putnam and Aaron Burr gathered up a portion of the soldiers, and by the most extraordinary exertions marched up the west side of the island through the woods and brought the men to Harlem Heights in safety when night had fallen. Howe was close upon this column in pursuit, and might have overtaken them, but for the exertions of a charming Quaker lady, Mrs. Murray. The General and his staff stopped at her door to ask how long since the Americans had passed. Mrs. Murray replied that they were long since out of reach, and begged that General Howe and his followers would come in and rest from the heat. Mrs. Murray and her daughter treated them with cake and wine, and held the men by their quaint Quaker coquetry for two hours. As a matter of fact the Americans had not been gone ten minutes when Howe inquired for their whereabouts.

A terrible rain fell that night. The patriot soldiers were without shelter. They had lost their provisions, cannons and baggage. The generals were not in a mood for giving them much sympathy for they felt that a more ready courage and obedience would have saved the day. There was a brisk engagement in the morning which was fairly well fought, and put some fresh spirit into the army. Early on the morning of the 16th occurred the battle of Harlem Heights, in which Washington himself directed the movements. He succeeded here in driving the English regulars in an open field—an experience new to

the American soldiers. In this engagement the Americans lost four valuable leaders. But the troops were reanimated, and Washington set great store by the influence of this victory upon their minds.

New York was now entirely in the possession of the English. On the 21st it was nearly destroyed by fire, though not intentionally. Five hundred buildings were burned, and it is supposed that several women and children perished in the flames. The Americans were suspected of setting the fire and about two hundred of them were arrested. Most of them were discharged as soon as examined. One man was hanged. This was Captain Nathan Hale, of Connecticut, a patriot of great courage and influence. He had volunteered to go within the British lines at Long Island and obtain information concerning the forces of the enemy, which was absolutely necessary to Washington. He was captured, and papers found upon him which showed his purpose. He did not at any time deny that he was a spy. He was hung without any trial, and was not even permitted to see a clergyman or use a Bible in his last hours. The letters he had written to his mother and sister were burnt. History has placed him among the honored men of America.

There was quiet for a few weeks, and it was not until the 12th of October that Howe was ready to renew hostile measures. The position of the Americans at Harlem Heights had been strengthened, but the Commander-in-chief feared that they could not be held, with the exception of Fort Washington. This was filled with a good garrison. The majority of the troops were scattered along the hills west of the Brown river, which runs nearly parallel to the Hudson. The army were disposed here in position to face the enemy. Washington held White Plains and the roads leading up the Hudson and to New England. The English moved up in two columns—an impressive sight to Washington and his officers, who looked down upon them from the hills. At the time of Howe's approach the troops were disposed along the brow of a steep declivity. The enemy came clambering straight up the ascent, but recoiled under the hot fire with which they were received. They made a second attempt and were again forced to retreat, but in the third rush they were successful, and drove the Americans before them. All through the retreat the patriots kept up a steady fire from behind trees and fences, and at the close of the day the loss of the English was much greater than that of the Americans. Within the next two or three days Washington withdrew his army to a position on the North Castle heights, which was so strong that Howe

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did not attempt to capture it. He now turned his attention to Fort Washington. On the 15th of November Howe demanded a surrender of the fort, threatening that if he was obliged to take it by assault the garrison would be put to the sword. Magaw, who was commanding the Pennsylvanians holding the fort, replied that he preferred to defend it. So insulting a demand for surrender would probably have determined him to this course, even if he had not previously intended it. The fight was a hot one. The American forces were scattered over the hills, along the shore of the river, and about the fort. All of these were finally crowded into the fort. Magaw was obliged to surrender, but it was upon honorable terms. The loss of the English army was three times as great as that of the Americans. Fort Lee was also forced to surrender. The Americans withdrew to the other side of the Hackensack river. Howe commanded the entrance to the Hudson. Washington believed that the British would follow their successes about New York by an immediate attack upon Philadelphia.

FOR FURTHER READING:

FICTION—J. R. Smalls' "The American Spy."

Alden's "Old Store House."

POETRY—F. C. Finch's "Nathan Hale."

DRAMA—D. Frumbell's "Death of Captain Nathan Hale."

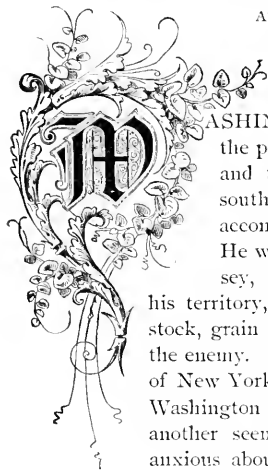


WASHINGTON CROSSING THE DELAWARE.

CHAPTER LVI.

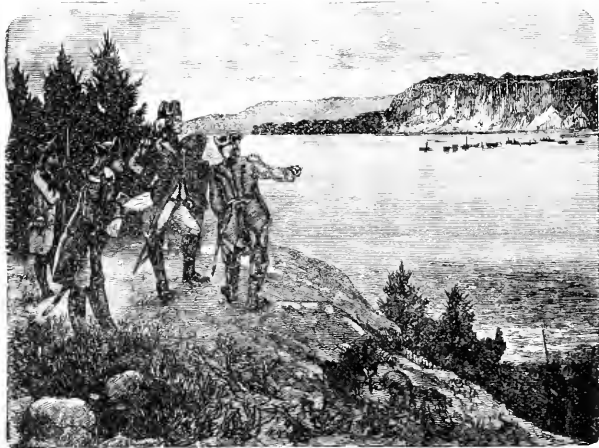
Battle Field and Bivouac.

THE JERSEY CAMPAIGN—THE BATTLE OF TRENTON—THE BATTLE OF
PRINCETON—WINTER ENCAMPMENT OF WASHINGTON
AT MORRISTOWN.



WASHINGTON left a part of his force to hold the posts which they still retained at the north, and took Putnam, Green, Stirling and Mercer southward with him. The entire force which accompanied him was less than four thousand. He wrote to Governor Livingstone, of New Jersey, telling him to prepare for an invasion of his territory, and asking the people to remove their stock, grain and other possessions out of the reach of the enemy. The treatment of the people in the villages of New York, by the English, had been merciless, and Washington wished to prevent, as far as he could, another scene of such desolation. Washington was anxious about the condition of his army. The enlistment terms of his men were short, and by the first of December Washington would have but two thousand men with him. The two armies moved through northern New Jersey, Washington always a little in advance of Cornwallis. The two Howes, as peace commissioners, offered pardon to all who had taken up arms against the king, if they would return quietly to their homes. This offer held good for sixty days, and many in New Jersey and Pennsylvania accepted it. As the British moved on through the towns, they took possession of horses, cattle, wagons and whatever else they desired. Washington kept a close outlook, and steadily retreated. His intention was to make a stand for the protection of Philadelphia. Fearing that at any time he might be forced to retreat into Pennsylvania, he had boats in readiness at Trenton, and, to keep the English from pursuing him, he ordered

that all sorts of craft should be removed from the Jersey side, for seventy miles up and down the Delaware river. The American force crossed the Delaware just as the English entered Trenton. The two armies moved southward. Congress thought it unsafe to remain in Philadelphia, and adjourned to meet in Baltimore. Washington was in great need of reinforcements, and kept sending commands to Lee, who was at the north, to join him with his forces. But Lee was envious of Washington's position, and desired to be first in command himself. He paid no attention to the commands, although they were imperative, and it was a fortunate thing for the army when he was finally taken



WASHINGTON ON THE HUDSON.

prisoner by a company of British dragoons. His command fell to General Sullivan, who lost no time in obeying Washington's orders, and reached headquarters just sixteen days after the first command was sent to Lee. Howe swept on through the country, the Americans hurrying before him. The Pennsylvania and New Jersey men had gone to their homes, their term of enlistment having expired. The patriot troops were thoroughly dispirited. Washington felt that warm action was necessary, even though it might be risky. He decided to fix Christmas day as the date of an attempt upon Trenton. The British were confident that rebellion was about put down in America. They

had scattered themselves widely over the country, partly to afford protection to the loyal inhabitants and partly to keep recruits from joining the American army. The men were quartered in companies of twelve and fifteen to a house, all through the farm district, and were given over to plunder of the most vicious sort. Barbarians could not have been more merciless. The wanton destruction of property was the least of their offences. The English had acquired a thorough contempt for Washington's army. They no longer felt fear or any need of watchfulness.

Situated at Trenton was Rahl, with twelve hundred men. Against these men Washington meant to move. Cornwallis was so confident that the campaign was over that he had obtained leave of absence, and had already reached New York, on his way to England. It was upon this lack of suspicion that Washington relied for the success of his plan. He determined to cross the Delaware at night above and below Trenton, to fall upon Rahl and his Hessians, capture them, and recross before he could be overtaken. That Donop and his sharpshooters, who were below Trenton, might have their attention engaged, a body of militia kept up a skirmish which drew off part of his force eighteen miles. General John Cadwallader was directed by Washington to cross the Delaware at Bristol, with a force of Pennsylvanians, and General Ewing was told to cross directly opposite Trenton. The main column, landing nine miles north of Trenton, at McConkey's ferry, was to be led by Washington himself. When the night came it was found unfavorable. Both Cadwallader and Ewing were unsuccessful in their efforts to cross, for the ice was piled up high on the Delaware shore. But Washington made up his mind that he would act, even though he was obliged to do so without support. The troops in his immediate command he felt that he could trust. Twenty-four hundred men composed the expedition. Most of them had seen service, and they were led by valiant men, but the difficulties they had to contend with now were not common ones. There was a driving storm, which half blinded the troops and threatened to make the guns useless. The current of the river was swift and filled with cakes of floating ice. The gentlemen who composed Washington's staff were filled with a courage which was almost gay. All the way across the treacherous river they encouraged the troops in every manner possible. The boats were manned by Massachusetts fishermen, who were natural sailors, and among the best soldiers of the war. Washington had hoped to be on the Jersey shore by midnight, but it was four in the morning before

troops and cannons were safely landed. It was too late to retreat, however, and there was nothing to do but to push on, although there was no longer hope of surprising the town. The road was slippery, and many of the men were nearly barefoot, but among the troops were the most experienced and tried men of the army, and no complaints were made. At Birmingham village the troops were divided, so that they might march around the town in two columns. It was found that the priming of the muskets had become too wet to use in many cases. Washington gave orders for the men to fight with bayonets. The Hessian outposts were surprised. A detachment of Americans, led by Lieutenant James Monroe, dashed in among them and was soon within Trenton. Sullivan had led the men up the lower road and had succeeded in surprising the outposts there as well. The Hessians made an attempt to form in the streets, but Washington himself directed the guns which cleared them away. Rahl had been indulging in Christmas festivities through the night, and neither he nor his men were clear-headed enough to do their best. They ran for their lives and were checked at every quarter. In a short time they were compelled to lay down their arms. Rahl, their lieutenant, was mortally wounded, but lived long enough to give up his sword to Washington. The Americans took nine hundred and fifty prisoners and six guns, and killed seventeen and wounded nearly eighty of the enemy. Their own loss was only two killed and four wounded. By evening Washington had recrossed the Delaware, and by the 30th he had mustered his whole force in the neighborhood of Trenton.

Cornwallis was determined to have revenge for the Trenton affair. He gathered all his available forces at Princeton, and on January 2, 1777, marched with his seven thousand men upon Trenton. They succeeded in cooping the Americans up there in a position which Washington recognized at once as being very perilous. To cross the Delaware in the presence of the enemy and retreat once more into Pennsylvania was impossible. Between Trenton and McConkey's ferry lay a part of the English army. In any position for battle his flanks could easily be turned, for the enemy outnumbered him. In a council of war a fortunate plan was hit upon. It was to follow an almost unused road and to reach Princeton secretly, if possible, in the night, and so escape from the trap in which they were at present caught. General St. Clair attended to all the details of preparation. Along the front of the camp the appearance of an army at rest was kept up. The guards were relieved, the camp fires were kept burning, and every semblance of

peaceful encampment sustained. As a matter of fact, the troops were quietly marching along what was called the Quaker Road towards Princeton. The ground was frozen and the artillery moved without trouble. Washington went with them in the midst of his guard, which was composed of twenty-one gentlemen of fortune, from Philadelphia, who were volunteers to the army and paid their own way. In the morning Cornwallis awoke to the realization that his prey had escaped, and that the Trenton affair was still unavenged. But before the success of the manoeuvre was assured there occurred a brisk engagement between General Mercer's men and a detachment of the English. This was known as the battle of Princeton. In it the English were routed, losing sixty killed and many wounded, besides one hundred and fifty prisoners. The American loss was small. General Mercer had been unhorsed, and on refusing to surrender, was bayoneted on all sides while he fought single-handed with his sword. He died a day or two later. Not a few of the men died from the effects of that night march through the bitter wind. They went without rest or provisions for two days and nights, and all of them were insufficiently clothed. As soon as Cornwallis learned that the enemy was at Princeton, he marched his soldiers in hasty pursuit, and entered that town just an hour after the Americans had left it. Washington took up winter quarters at Morristown. There was a feeling of general satisfaction throughout the United Colonies, for though the army had met with many disasters, it had succeeded in holding the English well in check. It was now seated in the very heart of New Jersey, which at one time everyone felt sure that the enemy would overrun. True, Howe held New York, but he had been obliged to abandon his plans against Philadelphia. Cornwallis and Howe had been outgeneraled and their veteran troops had suffered severely at the hands of the raw militia. George Washington was recognized as a great soldier, patient, discreet, ingenious and brave. Europe, and even England, were obliged to admit the dignity of the American Revolution, and to recognize the fact that the world had a new nation.

FOR FURTHER READING :

BIOGRAPHY—G. W. Greene's "Life of General Green."

FICTION—C. J. Peterson's "Kate Aylesford"

Faulding's "Old Continental."

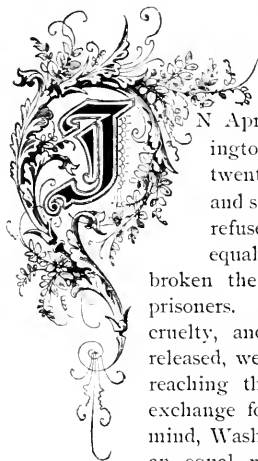
POETRY—"Battle of Trenton." (See Ford's Historical Poem.)

C. F. Orne's "Washington at Princeton."

CHAPTER LVII.

The Year of the Three Gallows.

STATE OF THE AMERICAN ARMY—THE PENNSYLVANIA CAMPAIGN—
THE BATTLE OF BRANDYWINE—"THE PAOLI MASSACRE"—THE BRITISH AT PHILADELPHIA—THE
BATTLE AT GERMANTOWN—WASHINGTON WINTERS AT
VALLEY FORGE.



ON April, 1777, General Howe demanded of Washington a return for a number of officers and twenty-two hundred privates whom he had released and sent within the American lines. Washington refused to make an exchange which would be equal in numbers, for he said that the enemy had broken the spirit of the contract made concerning prisoners. He accused Howe of great injustice and cruelty, and said that many of the prisoners, when released, were in so weak a state that they died before reaching their homes, or immediately afterward. In exchange for these suffering men, broken in body and mind, Washington did not propose to make a return of an equal number of able-bodied Englishmen. As a matter of fact, the American prisoners met with terrible treatment. As soon as they were taken they were robbed of their baggage, their money and their clothes. Many of them were kept upon the prison ships, which were terribly overcrowded, with only one-third the allowance of food which they should have had. It is said that at least eleven thousand five hundred men died upon the prison ships. Washington continued to refuse an equal exchange of men for the melancholy creatures who were sent him, almost none of whom were able to be placed in the field again. This was a great disappointment to Washington, for he was in serious need of men. The term of many of his

regiments had expired, and in the spring of 1777 he did not have four thousand names on his muster-roll. The difficulty of procuring munitions of war was as serious as that of procuring men. Arms were scarce and gunpowder almost unattainable. But for France, it is doubtful if the war could have been carried on. In spite of her treaty with Great Britain, France was friendly to the American cause. Though the French minister deeply deplored to the English government the aid which the people of France were giving to the American patriots, he took care to remain ignorant of what was actually being done. Large supplies of powder, cannon and field equipage were shipped from France and allowed to leave without hindrance from the government. Benjamin Franklin, Silas Deane and Arthur Lee were sent by Congress to France, and these asked the King to recognize the independence of the United States. He would not do this, although he expressed his good will and ordered two million livres to be paid them by quarterly payments. Spain secretly joined France in helping the colonies, and contributed one million livres, but she was not willing to be known in the matter.

It is not necessary to relate in detail all the numerous and unimportant skirmishes which took place at different points between the Americans and the English. During the spring of 1777 the English burnt a number of villages, and Governor Tyron, who was now Major-General of the Provincials, did some disastrous work through Connecticut. Each of those engagements between the opposing forces has left many interesting traditions, but to cite them all, or even the best of them, would be a task too great to undertake. In May, Long Island was the scene of some determined fighting, the hostilities reaching as far as Sag Harbor. General Prescott, of the English army, was captured, and Washington hoped that he might be exchanged for Lee, whom it will be remembered was in the hands of the English. Lee was still believed in by many people, although he had offered to sell himself and his plans to the English and had for months been disloyal to his country. By the 28th of May, Washington broke camp, moving to the southeast that he might be in a better position to watch Howe's movements. The patriot army had now increased to seven thousand. Sullivan was in command of the continentals at Princeton, and the first move of the English army was to send Cornwallis to attack this town. Sullivan fell back and was not overtaken. Cornwallis tried to bring Washington into action, but failed. A little later he succeeded in taking three cannons and two hundred prisoners from General Stirling, but on the

30th the English withdrew and crossed in a body to Staten Island. For six weeks they made no move, and Washington was unable to guess what their intentions might be. On the 23d of July, Howe set sail from New York, with eighteen thousand men, leaving six thousand in the city, under Clinton. A week later the English fleet appeared in the Delaware, but Washington had put such good obstructions there that it again put out to sea. Washington was as anxious as he was curious. He feared that it might be Howe's intention to move upon Charleston, and knew that defences could not reach the city in time to be of help. When next the fleet was heard of it was off the Chesapeake,



MARQUIS MARIE JOSEPH PAUL DE LAFAYETTE.

and Washington was reassured by the reflection that Howe's intention must still be to move upon Philadelphia. At this time Washington's army was joined by several foreign officers, who distinguished themselves in their devotion to the American cause. Among them were Lafayette and Baron John De Kalb. De Kalb and Lafayette were commissioned by Congress. Lafayette was very young—indeed he had not yet reached his majority—and it was only when he assured Congress that he had come as a volunteer and would pay his own expenses, that he was commissioned. The very ship in which he had

brought his men had been purchased and fitted out at his own expense. Washington marched his army through Philadelphia on the 22d of August. Howe was pushing his army through Pennsylvania. On the 10th of September Washington determined to hinder his further progress. At this time Howe was on the bank of the Brandywine river, commanding the principal forts. The engagement was a general one all along the lines. The Americans were finally forced to retreat. Their loss was three hundred killed and five hundred wounded. The English loss was less than six hundred in killed and wounded. Lafayette distinguished himself, and received a wound in the leg which kept him confined to his quarters for two months. The American army retreated the following day towards Pennsylvania and Germantown. On the 15th of September it crossed the Schuylkill. Here Howe advanced upon them. Anthony Wayne was in the American advance and was quite willing for a battle, but a drenching rain storm put an end to it. On the 19th of September Wayne was at Paoli, and within sight of Howe's encampment. He saw that the army was quietly engaged in camp occupations and told Washington that if he would come to his aid with the whole army he believed that a deadly blow might be dealt them. The intention was to move upon them in the night. Wayne had fixed midnight for the time of his movement. The watchword in his camp was "Here we are and there they go," but it proved to be a watchword without a signification, for, two hours before midnight Howe did exactly the thing which Wayne was intending to do. The British fell upon the American camp, firing no shots, but using their bayonets. The Americans were in the light of their camp-fires, and the British in the protection of the shadow. Wayne's men ran in confusion through the dark woods. Nearly one hundred and seventy were killed. This is known as the Paoli massacre. At 1 o'clock that night an aid-de-camp dashed into Philadelphia with a message from Washington that the enemy had crossed the Schuylkill and would be in the town in a few hours. The news spread through the town wildly and the people were roused out of their beds to hurry from the place. A patrol was put in the streets to guard against fire. It was over a week before Howe marched into the city. His troops were received with loud cheers by the Tories.

Washington learned a few days later that Howe had sent a small detachment to reduce the American forts on the Delaware. Washington decided that this was a good opportunity to strike an effectual blow. Howe's army was encamped in a long, straight line, to which there

were four approaches. Washington's plan was to advance on all four roads and engage the enemy along the whole line at the same moment. The attack was to be made at precisely 5 o'clock on the morning of the 4th of October. On the evening of the 3d the American army left its encampment and marched all night. They reached the points aimed at about daybreak on the 4th. The morning was misty and they were upon the outposts of the enemy before their approach was known. The Americans were in good fighting mood. Their cry was to revenge the Paoli massacre. A part of the English lines broke, and the day might have been won, but that in the fog and smoke the Americans mistook their own lines for those of the enemy, and did serious injury among themselves, delaying the general movement. The battle was lost and Washington ordered a retreat. A thousand men had been left behind, while the English lost not more than five hundred. But Howe was alarmed, nevertheless, and withdrew his army into the city. He was in doubt where to take up his winter quarters. The Delaware river was commanded by the Americans and it was not easy, therefore, to obtain provisions. The Schuylkill was seriously impeded by obstructions and by floating batteries along the shore. Howe sent Colonel Donop, with his Hessian sharpshooters, to reduce Fort Mercer. Donop made a furious assault, but both he and his lieutenant-colonel were killed, as well as four hundred Hessians. The two British ships, which had moved up the river to aid in the assault, ran aground. One was blown up by the fire from the fort and the other burnt to escape capture. But Howe still felt that he could not afford to let the enemy retain possession of the Delaware river. On the 19th of November the British fleet was brought to bear upon Fort Mifflin. The garrison there made a sturdy fight, but could not hold out against the heavy guns of the vessels, and they were obliged to take refuge on the other side of the river, in Fort Mercer, having had two hundred and fifty out of four hundred either killed or wounded. Cornwallis now moved into New Jersey, at the head of so large a force that even Fort Mercer had to be deserted. The Delaware, below Philadelphia, was now under the control of the British fleet. Washington took up his winter quarters at Valley Forge, and it is said that the march of his army over the frozen ground could be tracked by the blood from their uncovered feet.

FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Cooper's "History of the American Navy."

FICTION—Cooper's "Pilot."

J. R. Jones' "Quaker Soldier."

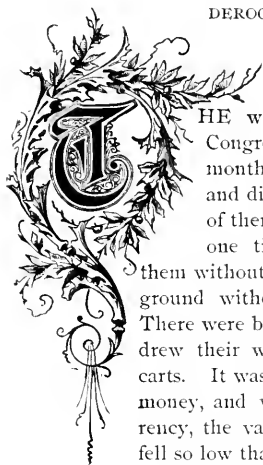
E. H. Williamson's "The Quaker Partisans."

POETRY—Carleton's "Little Black-eyed Rebel."

CHAPTER LVIII.

Gattered Conquerors.

WASHINGTON'S CAMP AT VALLEY FORGE—NEGLECT OF CONGRESS—
THE CONWAY CABAL—GENERAL STEUBEN—BURGOYNE
IN THE NORTH—THE SIEGE OF TICON-
DEROGA—THE BATTLE OF
ORISKANY



THE winter at Valley Forge was a dreary one. Congress neglected the soldiers woefully. For months they were left to suffer with hunger, cold, and disease. They slept without blankets, many of them sitting all night by their camp-fires. At one time there were more than a thousand of them without shoes. Even the sick had to lie on the ground without even a bunch of straw under them. There were but few horses, and the soldiers themselves drew their wood and provisions to their huts in little carts. It was very seldom that the troops received any money, and when they did, it was in Continental currency, the value of which was steadily decreasing. It fell so low that at one time it took one hundred Continental dollars to buy a pair of shoes. The foreign officers who had joined the camp were still faithful. Besides Lafayette and DeKalb, were Kosciuszko, Pulaski and Von Steuben. These lived in little log huts "no gayer," writes Lafayette, "than a dungeon." These men were used to courts, luxury and adulation, and their devotion to the American cause was put to a severe test, although, of course, they did not suffer the stinging privations of the common soldiery. The camp at Valley Forge was laid out in parallel streets of log huts, built by the soldiers. Fortunately there was plenty of building material close at hand. This was their salvation. Had they not been well sheltered, it is doubtful if they would have had courage to face the rigors of that winter. Even as it was, the death-rate increased thirty-three per cent.

from week to week. Desertion was frequent, but not so frequent as one might expect.

Congress was at York, Pennsylvania. It seemed to the men who had the interests of the national army at heart, that Congress was strangely neglectful and indifferent. Upon Washington's shoulders fell the responsibility and burden of providing supplies and putting down mutiny. His distresses were added to by the fact that he had many enemies who were planning for his overthrow. Chief among these was General Gates, who had conducted the latter part of a successful campaign at the north—a campaign in which he won more



BARON VON STEUBEN.

credit and did less work than several other generals whose names history has not so faithfully preserved. He was exceedingly jealous of Washington, and conspired with a man by the name of Conway for the overthrow of the Commander-in-chief. This was called the "Conway Cabal." A conspiracy of this kind could not be conducted without correspondence, and this made discovery almost inevitable. Throughout the country the cabal aroused universal indignation. In the midst of these troubles Washington had the satisfaction of knowing that the best men of the country were his warm friends, and he also perceived

that in spite of their privations the army was growing in effectiveness. This was due largely to William Von Steuben, the Prussian general, who has been mentioned before. He had been with Frederick the Great, and understood the management of men thoroughly. He introduced the Prussian system of minor tactics, and beginning on a small scale, he gradually brought the whole army into an admirable state of drill. The fact that he had no personal ambition in the matter and was moved solely by a sympathy for the soldiers and the cause they represented, endeared him to the hearts of the men. He had a quick temper and a brusque manner. He swore at the soldiers in German, and compelled his aids to swear at them in English. But the men had the sense to perceive that what they were learning would make them formidable. They saw now, if they had never before, the necessity of absolute obedience on the part of the soldier, and that he is valuable only when he becomes an unthinking part of a great human machine. In the battles which were to come Steuben was remembered with affection and tenderness when the men saw the strength they had gained under his instruction. Stories of his bluntness, his roughness and his profanity were told for long years after with a humor which but illy disguised the emotion which the mention of his name awakened. So the long months of the winter passed with Washington's men, and meanwhile, in the North, there were active hostilities.

Burgoyne, on his return to England after the end of the American campaign in Canada, submitted to the ministry his "Thoughts for conducting the war from the side of Canada." His plans were approved, and in March of 1777 he was given command of a force. Lieutenant-Colonel St. Leger was to assist him by making a diversion on the Mohawk river. The Governor of Canada was ordered to give all the assistance possible by adding Canadians and Indians to the expeditions. But the Canadians were more than indifferent; they were disinclined to the service. It was a matter which did not concern them, and in which they would have preferred to take no part. With the Indians, as can easily be imagined, it was quite different. But Burgoyne was seriously criticised, even in England, for the use of these savages in honorable warfare. The plan of the campaign was for Burgoyne to get possession of Albany, control the Hudson river, co-operate with Howe, and allow that general to act with his whole force southward; in short, to divide New England from the other States, and thus make their reduction easier. But through a very slight accident, which, however, was not slight in its consequence, General Howe was not informed of these

plans at all. Burgoyne landed with his eight thousand men off St. John's river, with the finest artillery train in America. Under him was a corps of successful officers. An English fleet was put upon Lake Champlain, consisting of nine vessels, carrying one hundred and forty-three guns and manned by one hundred and forty seamen.

On the 17th of June Burgoyne prepared for an attack against Ticonderoga. The river of St. John being the outlet of Lake Champlain, he had easily moved down to the western shore of the lake, and arrayed himself before the fort. Ticonderoga was still thought to be the key to the northern colonies, and the English believed its reduction to be necessary. The Americans were confident of holding the fort. General Arthur St. Clair, of Pennsylvania, was in command of the post with a force of three thousand men. Major-General Schuyler, who at this time had charge of the northern department, hastened to strengthen the chain of posts from Ticonderoga to the Hudson and Albany. St. Clair's force was too small to cover every explored point, and to save some of his out-post detachments, he withdrew them. One of the posts which he was forced to abandon was Mount Hope. This the English General, Frazer, took possession of with heavy guns, and cut off the communication of the Americans with Lake George. But this was a little matter compared with an unexpected move on the part of the British, which amazed and dismayed the Americans. South of Ticonderoga was a steep wooded height, which rose more than six hundred feet above the level of the lake. This was Sugar Loaf Mountain. It overlooked every fortified elevation in the vicinity, but had always been neglected in former wars because it was thought to be inaccessible. Burgoyne had with him engineers of ambition and skill, who secretly made a path up which the artillery could be drawn to the top, and one morning the American garrison, awoke to find the best guns of the English army frowning down upon them. St. Clair had but one chance of saving his garrison and that was by leaving the fort secretly at night. On the 6th of July, at 3 o'clock in the morning, the troops marched out of the Ticonderoga forts and moved towards Castleton, thirty miles southeast. The guns had been spiked, the tents struck, the women and the sick sent hours before up the lake with the stores, and all would have gone well if some one had not been foolish enough to set fire to one of the houses. By the light of the blaze the English saw the Americans retreating, and started immediately in pursuit. All the next day St. Clair retreated through the woods and on the morning of the 7th was attacked. He met with a heavy loss and

was obliged to retreat. Forty of his men were killed and three hundred and fifty wounded or taken prisoners. General St. Clair made a circuitous march of more than one hundred miles and reached Fort Edward with the remainder of his army.

Throughout the colonies there was a feeling of deep chagrin which, to tell the truth, was out of proportion with the disaster. In England there was rejoicing as ill-proportioned. There was no question, of course, but that the condition of the northern army was serious. All the troops that General Schuyler could muster at Fort Edward by the middle of July were barely five thousand. He called for assistance, and Washington sent him two brigades of Morgan's splendid riflemen, besides tents, ammunition and guns, which he could but illy spare from his own army. General Benedict Arnold and General Lincoln, of Massachusetts, were ordered to report to Schuyler. Burgoyne, for some reason, was slow in moving, and these reinforcements had time to reach Fort Edward without interruption. In all, the American army at the north numbered six thousand, two-thirds of whom were Continentals, fairly armed. When Burgoyne's soldiers began their march, they found that the roads had been torn up, trees felled across them, all the bridges destroyed, and the cattle driven off. Their provisions were tardy, and the month of July had almost passed before they reached the river at Fort Edward. On the 22d Schuyler abandoned this fort and took a better position on Moses' creek, three miles below. Being threatened here, he fell back from one point to another until he reached Von Schaick's Island, where the Mohawk runs into the Hudson. Burgoyne's plan of the campaign, as has been said before, was to send two forces southward. One of these was to march through the Mohawk valley to Albany and join the main body. This was composed of eighteen hundred men, under St. Leger. These reached the vicinity of an old fortification on the Mohawk river, known as Fort Schuyler. St. Leger demanded surrender but was promptly refused. The people of the valley were patriotic, and at the first alarm the militia had turned out eight hundred in number and hurried to the relief of the garrison, which was composed of seven hundred and fifty New York and Massachusetts Continental troops, under Colonel Gansevoort. At the head of the militia was General Nicholas Herkimer, a sturdy German, who had been so warm in his defence of the popular cause that his leadership alone gave courage to the people of the valley. He sent word to Gansevoort of his approach, and suggested that the garrison should meet him at an appointed place. But St. Leger heard of

Herkimer's approach and intercepted him. Herkimer was marching carelessly through the Mohawk valley where the river bends frequently and the ground is broken with ravines, when he found himself surrounded by Indians and Englishmen in ambush. The Americans had entered well into the defile near Oriskany, where they were quite at the mercy of the enemy. Herkimer was mortally wounded at the beginning of the engagement, but he seated himself upon his saddle at the foot of a tree, lit his pipe, and determining to die as slowly as possible, gave his orders. No fight of the revolution was more desperate. For a large part of the time it consisted of hand-to-hand struggles, in which the men fought with knives, tomahawks, swords and spears. The fight lasted for five hours, till the ground was covered with the dead and wounded, nearly two hundred being killed on each side. At length help came to the Americans. Gansevoort had been reached by a messenger and sent out a sortie, composed of two hundred and fifty New York and Massachusetts men, under Lieutenant-Colonel Willett, of New York. This party rushed into the enemy's camp, where only a few troops had been left in charge, capturing baggage, stores, papers and flags and drawing the attention of the enemy away from Herkimer's hard-pressed forces. The Indians were frightened and soon retreated. This weakened the British so that they had no choice but to follow. St. Leger did not, however, give up the siege of the fort until news reached him of Arnold's approach, when the Indian allies compelled him to abandon the siege.

This was the first check to Burgoyne's plans. The hatred of him among the Americans had increased a thousand fold. His cruelty in employing the Indians was everywhere condemned. The fate of Jane McCrae was quoted as an example of the horrors which Indian alliance involved. She was a young woman, beautiful and gently reared, affianced at the time of her death to a young loyalist officer. She was killed while in the hands of two Indians, and her long hair was afterwards shown at Burgoyne's headquarters. People chose to believe that she was killed by the Indians, but in fact she was killed by her friends, the American soldiers, who were firing upon a party of Indians who had captured Miss McCrae and a friend with whom she was staying, Mrs. McNeal. Miss McCrae was buried by the soldiers who had attempted her rescue and heedlessly caused her death.

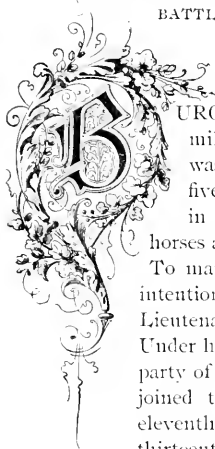
FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY—Burgoyne's "Expedition from Canada."
BIOGRAPHY—Spark's "Life of Allen."
FICTION—E. E. Ellis' "Haunted Wood."
C. F. Hoffman's "Greyslaer."

CHAPTER LIX.

“Elbow Room.”

THE RAID ON BENNINGTON—GENERAL GATES GIVEN COMMAND AT
THE NORTH—THE BATTLE OF FREEMAN’S FARM—
BATTLE OF BEMUS HEIGHTS—SURREN-
DER OF BURGOYNE.



BURGOYNE, moving his main column with slow, military precision, was in great need of stores, and was delighted when he learned that about twenty-five miles east of his line of march, at Bennington, in the New Hampshire grants, was a depot of horses and stores, which the Americans had established. To march against this store-house was, therefore, his intention, and he appointed for the leader of the raid Lieutenant-Colonel Baume, a trusted German officer. Under him was a select corps, five hundred strong, and a party of loyalist rangers. About one hundred Indians joined the column also. Baume started out on the eleventh of August, and on the afternoon of the thirteenth, then sixteen miles distant from his starting point, wrote to Burgoyne that the rebels were now aware of the expedition, but that the Tories all about the country were flocking in to him. He complained that the Indians were uncontrollable, and added that he had learned that the strength of the American militia at Bennington was about eight hundred. Burgoyne concluded, on receiving this information, that it would be best to reinforce Baume, and on the fifteenth sent forward Colonel Breyman and his five hundred Brunswick chasseurs. It was true that Burgoyne's approach had been learned of by the "rebels." They had risen with their usual promptitude, and at their head was General Stark, who, at the time of the Boston fight, had gathered the farmers of the country around him and hastened to the rescue. At Bunker Hill, and at Trenton, he had done brave work, and now the whole region was ready to answer to his call. The State

ordered out the militia, and gave Stark the command. His brigade consisted of fifteen hundred militia. To these were added companies of "Green Mountain Boys," which swelled the entire force to about twenty-two hundred. These hastened to Bennington, many of them marching by night in a severe rain. By the sixteenth, Stark was ready to attack Baume's main body. There is a story that as the general came in sight of the enemy he cried: "See there, my men; there are the red coats; before night they are ours, or Mollie Stark is a widow." The fight lasted for two hours, and the British were finally forced to give way. No road of escape was left open to them, and the entire body surrendered. Baume was mortally wounded. The American militia-men, in great exultation, scattered over the abandoned camp for the purpose of plundering it. By this greed and disorder they came near losing all the advantage they had gained, for they were surprised by Colonel Breyman with his reinforcements, and it was only by the promptest action of the American officers that the English were driven back. When night fell, it was certain that the Americans had gained a signal victory. They had taken four cannon and nearly seven hundred prisoners, with but a small loss to themselves. This was known as the Battle of Bennington. This success at the north reanimated the spirits of the colonies. Volunteers hastened northward to swell the victorious army there. General Gates was given command of the northern department, in the place of Schuyler, and the former general reaped the credit of all the work Schuyler had done. Gates moved the camp from the mouth of the Mohawk, and took possession of Bemus Heights, twenty-five miles north of Albany. This site was commanding, and capable of easy defense, and, under the direction of Kosciusko, was strengthened by a line of breastworks and redoubts. This post held the road to Albany, and to reach that town Burgoyne must first overcome this obstacle. The British were still annoyed by lack of supplies, but it was necessary that they should push on, and they hastened to attack the Americans on Bemus Heights as soon as possible.

Gates had about nine thousand men. His position was excellent. Upon the right was the Hudson; on the left, ridges and thick woods; in front, a ravine and abattis. Commanding with Gates was a large number of efficient officers, among them Arnold, and Colonel Daniel Morgan of Virginia, with his famous rifle corps. On the eighteenth there was a skirmish, in which a number of Englishmen, who were gathering potatoes, were killed or captured. On the nineteenth, work began in good earnest. Burgoyne moved upon Gates in three large columns.

Gates hastened to send out Arnold and Morgan to meet him. The battle ground was interspersed with thick woods, occasional clearings, and ravines. With such protection the lines were able to approach within close range. The fight was a long and serious one; now one side and now the other fell back. A number of the American commanders lost half of the men in their force. The English had four pieces of artillery on the ground, but the Americans had none. A party of New Hampshire men charged upon and seized a twelve-pounder. They were driven from it by a larger body of the enemy, but secured it a second time, and were again forced back. Private Thomas Haynes, of Concord, sat astride the muzzle of a piece when the enemy came up, and killed two men with his bayonet before a bullet struck him. The fierceness of the struggle can be imagined when it is known that thirty-six out of the forty-eight British gunners were either killed or wounded. The firing ceased at sunset. The Americans withdrew their fortified lines and the enemy held the field. Neither side were victorious, but Burgoyne had received his second check. The engagement was known as the battle of Freeman's Farm.

The British fortified the ground which they held, and rested there for eighteen days. In the meantime, reinforcements came to Gates. General Stark threatened Burgoyne's communication with the north, and Colonel John Brown, with five hundred men, had made a dash at Ticonderoga and taken prisoners and guns. Burgoyne's constant hope was to join the main body under Howe, and thus force Gates to fall back. By the 21st of September he received word that Sir Henry Clinton had been sent from Howe's army with an expedition which would sail up the Hudson for the purpose of taking the forts near West Point, thus creating a diversion in Burgoyne's favor. Clinton succeeded in doing as he desired, and carried both Forts Montgomery and Clinton by assault. The American loss was about three hundred, of whom sixty or seventy were killed or wounded. The British dismantled the forts, burned two American frigates and laid a village in ashes. General Putnam, who was in command of the Americans at that point, retreated farther up the river and attacked the post at Fishkill. Clinton then returned to New York.

This had not been of such marked relief to Burgoyne as he had hoped. The American lines were closing about him. He was short of provisions, and he found his Indian allies restless. It was necessary for him to either advance or retreat, and it was more in keeping with his character to do the first. With his best generals, he took position on

open ground within a mile of the American lines, sending an advance around to reach the American rear. Gates was quick and cordial in his response, sending out Morgan, with his riflemen, to begin the work. Hardly an hour passed after the British gave battle before their whole line was retiring in disorder. The success of the day had largely been due to the efforts of Arnold. There were many jealousies and enmities in the northern division, and Arnold's impassioned and overbearing disposition had brought him into disgrace. Gates had taken his command from him and told him to remain in his tent, but when he heard the firing upon the field and saw how the American lines wavered for a time, he rushed out and took command of first one corps and then another, rousing the troops to enthusiasm. Gates sent a messenger ordering him to leave the field, but Arnold succeeded in avoiding him, and continued to cheer on the men who followed wherever he led. Even when the English were driven to their intrenchments, and the twilight had deepened almost to darkness, Arnold and Morgan broke through the lines and works and forced the Hessians to abandon their position. In this last charge Arnold was wounded. Congress promoted him to the rank of Major-General. The American loss had been small, but the English had lost many men as well as one of their best generals, and altogether the defeat of the English was decisive. Burgoyne retreated to Saratoga and encamped at the north side of the Fishkill. Gates followed him and made such a disposition of his troops as to surround him. His line of retreat was severed; he was threatened in the rear, and had but five days rations in the camp. Under the circumstances there was little choice but for him to make proposals for surrender. These he sent to the American commander, who agreed that the British army should march out with all the honors of war and have free passage to England, upon condition of not serving again during the war. The surrender included five thousand seven hundred and sixty-three officers and men. On the 17th of October the army laid down their arms in the presence of two majors of General Gates' staff. For several days after, Burgoyne and his officers were entertained courteously by Gates and his staff. In England, Burgoyne was severely blamed for a blunder in which the ministry should have taken the blame to themselves. Congress presented Gates a medal for accomplishing what, up to this time, was the most important event of the war.

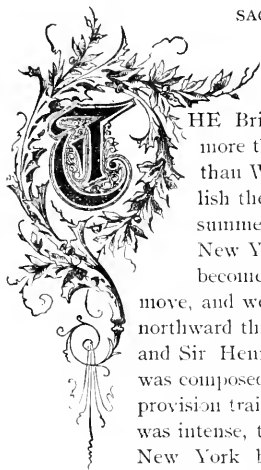
FOR FURTHER READING.

- HISTORY—Burgoyne's "Orderly Book."
Feltton's "Journal of American Revolution."
BIOGRAPHY—Spark's "Life of Stark."
FICTION—Cooper's "Chain Bearer."

CHAPTER LX.

Sabre and Musket.

EVACUATION OF PHILADELPHIA BY THE BRITISH—THE BATTLE OF
MONMOUTH COURT HOUSE—FIRING OF BEDFORD AND
FAIR HAVEN—THE WYOMING MAS-
SACRE—WARFARE IN
THE WEST.



THE British forces had occupied Philadelphia for more than eight months with a force much larger than Washington's, but they had failed to establish themselves in the State at large. Early in the summer of 1778 they received orders to return to New York, for the concentration of their forces had become necessary. On June 18th they began to move, and were soon ferried across the river and marching northward through the Jerseys. Howe had been relieved and Sir Henry Clinton had the command. The train was composed of fourteen thousand effective men and the provision train was eight or ten miles long. The heat was intense, the roads bad, and during the long march to New York between six and eight hundred Hessians deserted. As soon as Washington heard of Clinton's start he broke camp at Valley Forge and sent his men forward to destroy bridges and delay the enemy. On the 21st the Americans crossed the Delaware and on the 28th struck the rear of Clinton's columns, bringing about the battle of Monmouth Court House. General Steuben himself had reconnoitred the enemy the day before. Lafayette, Green and Lee were given commands. The night before the 28th several hundred men were moved up closer to the enemy, where they could be in position to watch their movements in the morning. As soon as Clinton's troops were set in motion Washington sent word to Lee to hasten operations and force an engagement. The main army moved forward to support the advance corps. Lee was thrown into confusion by con-

flicting reports, and it was 9 o'clock in the morning before he was assured that the British were really continuing their march. The opportunity for attack, according to Washington's plan, was lost. A second skirmish took place between detachments of both armies, the Americans gaining the advantage.

At this stage of the conflict Lee sent orders to Wayne to move to the right and capture the enemy's rear guard. This looked like a retreat to the rest of the commanders, and they left their positions and fell back some distance, when Lee sent his tardy orders to stand fast. By this time the entire division was in retreat. This the British saw and were not slow to take advantage of. Lee watched his detachments retreat across the ravine and then, seeing that they were safe, followed them, to find that Washington had come up with the main army and taken command himself. In a moment the atmosphere changed. The vacillation of the troops was gone, and they responded to the command of Washington's vigorous leadership. The Commander-in-chief ordered the nearest officers to hold the ground, while he formed the main army. The retreating troops were quick to join those in position. When Lee, last of all, came across the ravine, Washington met him and reproached him in terms as angry as they were justifiable. Lee's military career was practically ended. He was soon after brought to trial before a court-martial, found guilty of disobedience to orders, misbehavior before the enemy, disrespect to the Commander-in-chief, and was sentenced to suspension from command for a year. The British soon advanced, but the Continentals stood firm, and Lafayette prevented Clinton from flank the position. Not until 5 o'clock in the afternoon did the British fall back. The loss was about three hundred and fifty on each side. Clinton marched on to New York without further interruption, Washington following him. The Americans encamped upon White Plains, where they could watch the enemy. Late in July the Count D'Estaing arrived from France with a squadron of twelve ships, carrying four thousand troops. This fleet was intended for the relief of Philadelphia, but did not reach the Delaware until that city had been evacuated. It finally put in at Newport, and at its approach twenty-one English vessels were burned to avoid capture. The Continentals had been in great hopes that D'Estaing would put in at the harbor of New York, but he claimed that the water there was not sufficient. Not a little dissatisfaction was felt, but this was soon forgotten in a determination to be grateful for his aid. It was decided that the French and American armies were to co-operate in an attack upon Newport, where

General Pigot was stationed with six thousand British and Hessians. There were ten thousand Continentals in Rhode Island, under the command of Sullivan. Sullivan agreed with D'Estaing that an attack should be made on August 10th, but he moved before that date and neglected to inform the French commander of his change of purpose. On the 9th, when the French were ready to co-operate, a fleet of thirty-six vessels, under Lord Howe, appeared at sea, and D'Estaing re-embarked his men and put out after them, but no battle followed, for the fleets were overtaken by a terrible storm which scattered them. Sullivan thought best to push on, even without the French troops. He forced the enemy to withdraw within their lines of intrenchment, covered his own men with earthworks, and waited for D'Estaing's return. The French commander, instead of returning, went to Boston to have his fleet repaired. It was a bitter disappointment to the Continentals. Sullivan was doubtful about the safety of attacking under the circumstances, for D'Estaing steadily refused to separate his men from the ships. But on the 29th an engagement took place, which was provoked by Sullivan. In the end the Americans were driven from their positions, though with a loss of only one-fifth as large as that sustained by the British. On the following day Sullivan learned that Pigot was to be reinforced by Clinton with five thousand men, and he therefore began a hasty retreat across the country. Clinton finding there were no soldiers to fight, set fire to New Bedford and Fair Haven and all the vessels at their wharves. Howe sailed to Boston and challenged D'Estaing to battle, but he was not yet ready for sea, and when his fleet was at length refitted he sailed for the West India station without any further effort to help the American cause.

While these hostilities were being conducted along the coast, in the west the Tories and the Indians were still keeping up frequent though irregular hostilities. In the battle of Oriskany, the year before, more than one hundred Indians had been slain, and in the tribes of the Six Nations there was a thirst for revenge. Joseph Brant was the most influential of all their chiefs. He had been educated among the whites, and having naturally an active mind and a savage nature, was now a most formidable leader. He was attached to the Tory interest of central New York by a sort of relationship with Sir William Johnson. The Tories did not disdain to use him as one of their chief allies, and among the Whigs he was dreaded without measure. From July to November of 1778, a merciless warfare was kept up by the Tories and Indians on the defenseless Whigs. The warfare extended all along the

valley of the Susquehanna, northward through the west of Albany. Villages were burned, and men, women and children murdered. Toward the last of June two forts were taken at Wyoming, and many of the inhabitants of the valley were obliged to fly for their lives to Fort Forty. Colonel Zebulon Butler had command of the garrison here, and foolishly moved out against the Tories and Indians, who had a much larger force than he. All but sixty of his three hundred men were killed. As the news of this terrible massacre spread through the valley, the people fled from their homes to the woods and mountains, or sought protection at Fort Wyoming. In a little while this fort was also surrendered on a promise that the settlers should be permitted to return to their farms. But, as might have been expected, this promise was broken and many of the farmers, with their wives and children, were slain. About this time Joseph Brant had entered the settlement of Springfield, at Oswego Lake, and burnt every house in the village except one, in which he had had the humanity to place the women and children. Two months later Brant, with a large body of followers, destroyed the settlement of German Flats, in the valley of the Mohawk. For ten miles not a house or field was left unmolested. Early in November a terrible fate overtook Cherry Valley, a village remarkable for the refinement and virtue of its inhabitants. The people were staunch patriots, and were, therefore, sure targets for Tory vengeance. Nearly fifty persons were killed here in the course of one day, and all but sixteen were women and children. The fort was not taken, but most of the buildings in the village were burned.

Still farther west the warfare was waged as mercilessly. The territory which is now the States of Tennessee, Ohio and Kentucky was then thinly settled with pioneers. It was three years since Daniel Boone had blazed a trace in the wilderness west of Virginia. The men who followed him were among the bravest and most enduring of the nation. Hunting and fighting were necessary to their bare existence. Their deeds of endurance and fortitude are among the most romantic tales of history. They had settled, unfortunately, upon what was considered the common hunting grounds of both the northern and southern Indians, and the savages naturally resented the encroachment upon their lands. The terrible disasters which overtook the pioneers of that region caused it to be called "the Dark and Bloody Ground." The English added fuel to their hatred, and many of the expeditions against the unfortunate settlers were inspired at Detroit, Vincennes and Kaskaskia by the commanders of the garrisons there.

Colonel George Rogers Clark, one of the hardy pioneers of Kentucky, determined to strike at the source of this mischief. Patrick Henry, who was then Governor of Virginia, gave him aid, and Clark got together a band of one hundred and fifty men, and in May, 1778, went down the Ohio. At Corn Island, by the falls of the Ohio, he built a block-house as a depot for provisions, and leaving five men in charge, went on with his force, which had now increased a little. While he was gone, these five men built cabins where Louisville now stands. He left his boat at the mouth of the Tennessee and marched across to Kaskaskia. Here he surrounded and took the town. He sent the Governor to Virginia, and exacted an oath of allegiance to the United States from the people. Cahokia was soon taken in the same manner, and after that Vincennes, on the Wabash. It was in the autumn of 1778 that the county of Illinois was first recognized and a civil commandant appointed. Governor Hamilton, of Detroit, soon recovered Vincennes, where Clark had left only two men in the fort. Hamilton was not aware of this fact, and approached with eight hundred men, demanding a surrender. The captain refused till he knew the terms. Hamilton conceded the honors of war, and the captain and his one man marched out with dignity between the surprised columns of the enemy. Late the following winter Clark marched from Kaskaskia through the swamps of that country and retook the fort. Hamilton was sent as a prisoner of war to Virginia. The Indians, who were always anxious to be on the strongest side, now became the friends of the Americans.

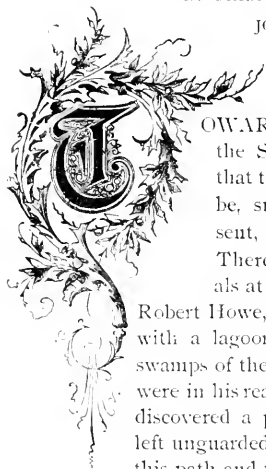
FOR FURTHER READING.

- HISTORY—Moore's "Treason of Charles Lee."
BIOGRAPHY—Abbott's "Life of Boone."
Stone's "Life of Brant."
FICTION—H. Peterson's "Pemberton."
POETRY—Hopkinson's "Battle of the Kegs."
Campbell's "Gertrude of Wyoming."
William Collins' "Mollie Pitcher at Monmouth."

CHAPTER LXI.

The "Bon Homme Richard."

BRITISH REDUCTION OF GEORGIA—THE DESTRUCTION OF NEW
HAVEN—THE AMERICANS CAPTURE STONY POINT—
THE GREAT NAVAL ENGAGEMENT OF
JOHN PAUL JONES.



TOWARD the close of the year the war drifted to the South. The ministry of England still held that the southern colonies ought to be, and could be, subdued. Lieutenant-Colonel Campbell was sent, with two thousand men, to reduce Savannah. There were twelve or fifteen hundred Continentals at that place, under the command of General Robert Howe, of North Carolina. He was well situated, with a lagoon in front, a morass on the right and the swamps of the river on the left. The works of the town were in his rear and he thought himself safe, but Campbell discovered a path through the swamps, which had been left unguarded. A detachment, led by a negro, went over this path and turned Howe's right. At the same time an attack was made in front, and the Americans beat a confused retreat into the town, losing over five hundred in killed and as prisoners, as well as baggage and artillery. In a short time Campbell was in possession of Augusta, and the people of Georgia were obliged to acknowledge royal rule. Throughout Georgia and the other southern colonies there had been a fierce partisan warfare. Nowhere else in the colonies had there been neighborhood feuds as bitter as in those States. The loyal and patriot parties were about equally divided all through the South, and first one and then the other would be in the ascendancy. As soon as Campbell took Augusta a company of Tories assembled for the purpose of joining him, but they were intercepted by a band of Whigs. Seventy men were captured, tried for treason, and five of them



THE ASSAULT ON STONY POINT.

were hanged. In March, 1779, five hundred North Carolina militia were ordered to move down the Savannah towards the enemy, who had left Augusta. The Patriots were surprised by the Tories, two hundred men killed or wounded and the rest frightened into dispersing with as much speed as possible. Occurrences of this sort were not unfrequent. A party feeling existed everywhere, and neighbors whose plantations adjoined each other waged as bitter war against one another as if they had been denizens of different countries. The militia could not be relied on, for they were likely at any time to leave their duties and hasten home to the protection of their households against private enemies.

By the 11th of May the English commander was before Charleston and summoned it to surrender. This Moultrie and the other military leaders would not consent to, and in the engagement which followed the English were obliged to move back upon Savannah. In the course of the summer General Clinton sent down several expeditions for the purpose of harassing the people. Along the Virginian coast many merchant vessels were burned and large quantities of provisions destroyed. General Tryon landed at New Haven on the 5th of July with three thousand men. The move was an unexpected one, and there were no soldiers to oppose him. But the people armed, and the Yale students formed themselves into a military company, Dr. Daggett, the president of the college, sending his daughter to a place of safety and then shouldering his musket to fight with his pupils. He was, unfortunately, taken prisoner. The inhabitants did all that they could to check the progress of the enemy, but the Hessian and British soldiers filled the town and indulged in every sort of outrage. The houses were robbed, the men murdered and a scene of debauchery and cruelty followed which was a disgrace to civilized soldiers. Norwalk and Green's Farms were visited next and treated in the same manner.

Washington had placed his force so as to cover West Point. He had recovered Stony Point, which Clinton had taken from him but a short time previous. The attack for recovery was made at midnight on July 15th. Every soldier had a badge of white paper fastened to his hat, that he might be distinguished from the enemy. Each man was to shout, "The fort is our own," as he entered the works. Between the point and the mainland was a neck, which, at the hour of the attack, was covered by the tide about two feet deep. While crossing this, fire was opened upon the Americans from the guns. The Americans had been ordered by Anthony Wayne, who led them, not to

fire, but to depend entirely on their bayonets. The English stood by their guns crying, "Come on, ye damned rebels, come on," to which Wayne's men cheerfully responded, "Don't be in such a hurry, my lads; we will be with you presently"—and they were, although they had to scramble up the steep ascent and over the abatis with the English fire upon them. The attack was one of those impetuous ones which none could lead so successfully as "Mad Anthony Wayne." He was struck in the forehead with a ball, but insisted on being carried into the fort by his men. The entire capture had not taken more than half an hour, and by it the Americans gained nearly fifteen hundred prisoners, fifteen pieces of cannon, and large quantities of stores and ammunition. This defeat delayed Clinton's advance and caused him to postpone indefinitely the movement upon Connecticut.

A little later than this he met with another surprise in the loss of the post at Paulus Hook, now Jersey City. On the 19th of August, Major Henry Lee, with five companies of southern troopers, carried the place by assault without firing a shot. They were hotly pursued, but took one hundred and fifty prisoners with them in safety. Clinton sent out a naval expedition in August, which had an engagement near the mouth of the Penobscot, in which they were successful. In this affair the American colonists showed a lack of courage and judgment.

Not more than a month after this, General Paul Jones fought his great battle upon the sea. It was the most important event of the year, and indeed one of the most remarkable battles which ever took place upon the ocean. The contest upon the sea up to this time had been barely respectable. It was mostly a warfare of privateers, with plunder for its aim. Congress had been anxious for a navy, and had made all the efforts possible for establishing one. But their means were limited, and the work had been left mostly to the small frigates and privateering vessels, who, in their way, did not a little work for the Revolution. In the year 1777 two hundred and fifty British vessels were captured by American cruisers before the 1st of February. By the end of that year the number taken was four hundred and sixty-seven. The most successful of all the seamen was Paul Jones. All along the English coast he was held in terror and dread. To him the King of France gave an old Indiaman, fitted out as a man-of-war. This Paul Jones named the *Bon Homme Richard*. This cruised along the west coast of Ireland and the north of Scotland for more than a month, with two consorts, the *Alliance* and the *Paulus*. On the 22d of February they came in sight of a fleet of merchantmen under convoy of two frigates.

One of these, the *Scrapis*, carried fifty guns, the other, the *Countess of Scarborough*, carried twenty-two. Jones gave the signal for pursuit as they were off Flamborough Head, on the coast of Yorkshire. He was not altogether in good condition for fight, for his crew had been reduced to man prizes, and his prisoners were two-thirds as numerous as his remaining crew. Besides, the *Scrapis* was a new frigate. She had twenty guns on each of her decks, main and upper, and ten lighter ones on her quarter deck and forecastle. The *Richard* had only six guns on her lower deck, which were all on the same side. Above these, on the main deck, were fourteen guns on each side. She had a high quarter and forecastle, with eight guns on these, and was of old-fashioned build, with a high poop, so that her lower deck was but little below her antagonist's main deck. It was after sunset, and a full moon had arisen, when the *Richard* came within hail of the *Scrapis*. Captain Pearson, of the latter frigate, spoke the *Richard* twice. For answer Jones opened fire. Unfortunately, at the very first, two heavy guns on the lower deck burst. Many of the men were killed by the explosion. The rest went up to the main deck. The *Scrapis* responded to the fire immediately. Jones pushed up closer, and as the heavy vessels swung around, the jib-boom of the *Scrapis* ran into the mizzen rigging of the *Richard*. Jones himself fastened the vessels together, and one of the anchors of the *Scrapis* caught the quarter of the *Richard*, lashing them fast. The *Scrapis* was so close to her antagonist that she could not open her ports on the starboard side, and her first shots were fired through her own port lids to free her guns. The fire from the main deck of the *Scrapis*, while it badly injured the *Richard*, had but little effect upon the men, who, as has been said, deserted the lower deck, where the cannonading did most execution, at the beginning. The upper guns of the *Richard*, of course, hung over the *Scrapis*, as the former vessel had greatly the advantage of height. Muskets were little used, for it was night and clouds of smoke enveloped the vessels. At length, after two hours of about equal fighting, the men in the *Richard's* tops began throwing hand-grenades upon the deck of the *Scrapis*, and one sailor, who had worked himself out to the end of the main yard with a bucket filled with grenades, lighted them one by one and threw them down the hatchway of the *Scrapis*. They fell among a row of eighteen-pounder cartridges. The row was lighted, and in the explosion which followed, twenty men were blown to pieces. Many others were frightfully burned. Some of them were stripped naked, leaving nothing but the collars of their shirts and their wrist-bands

upon them. This roused them to desperation, and they made an attempt to board the *Richard*. They were met by Jones with a spike in his hand at the head of his men. The English were forced to fall back. At half past ten, Pearson, of the *Serapis*, struck his colors, but the fight was so equal that the men upon the *Richard* hardly knew, when the cry "they have struck" came, whether it was Pearson or Jones who had yielded. There is a story that when Pearson delivered his sword to Jones he said: "I cannot, sir, but feel much mortification at the idea of surrendering my sword to a man who has fought me with a rope around his neck." Naturally this reproach did not in the least discomfort Jones. He returned the sword courteously, saying, "You have fought gallantly, sir, and I hope your King will give you a better ship." When Jones heard afterward that Pearson had been knighted for his intrepid action, he remarked: "He deserved it, and if I fall in with him again I will make a lord of him." When morning dawned the *Richard* was found to be sinking. The fires on her had not been put out, and she had been sadly torn to pieces. The wounded were, therefore, removed to the *Serapis* and were followed by the crew, who watched the gallant *Richard* sink to the bottom. The King of France presented Jones a sword, and Congress gave him a vote of thanks. Jones' action was the last important one between the English and the American ships in the war. The French fleet was relieving the American government from the expense of maintaining a navy. For the most part the naval actions during the remainder of the war were between privateers, of which there were a large number.

FOR FURTHER READING.

HISTORY—Tarleton's "History of the Southern Campaign."

Lee's "War in the Southern Department."

Hawk's "Revolutionary History of North Carolina."

Drayton's "Revolution in the Carolinas"

BIOGRAPHY—McKenzie's "Paul Jones."

FICTION—Cooper's "The Pilot."

T. Mirge's "Paul Jones."

A. Cunningham's "Paul Jones."

Dumas' "Captain Paul."

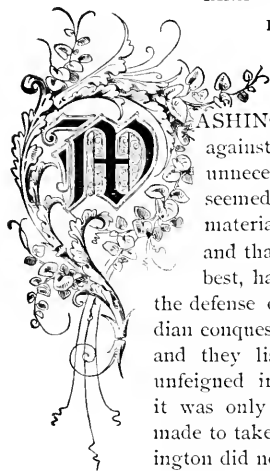


Millard Fillmore

CHAPTER LXII.

The Six Nations.

EXPEDITION AGAINST THE SIX NATIONS—THE CIVILIZATION OF THE
INDIANS—HUMILIATION OF THE SIX NATIONS—EXPE-
DITION UP THE MISSISSIPPI FROM LOUIS-
IANA—TRIUMPH OF CLINTON
IN THE SOUTH.



WASHINGTON was opposed to the movement against Canada. He thought it involved an unnecessary waste of lives and money, and it seemed to him that the great cause would not be materially affected by victory in that direction, and that the army of the nation, feeble enough at best, had need to concentrate its attention upon the defense of American homes. The plan of Canadian conquest had been a favorite one with Congress, and they listened to Washington's objections with unfeigned irritation. When at length they yielded, it was only upon condition that an effort should be made to take the British fort at Niagara. This Washington did not altogether approve of, but he hoped, by sending an expedition against that fort, to severely punish the Six Nations, from whose atrocities the frontier settlements still continued to suffer. Early in 1779, preparations were made for carrying the war into Central New York and Western Pennsylvania. The command was given to Sullivan. The directions from Washington were that he was to seem to have Niagara as his destination, but the punishment of the Indians was to be his sole object. These commands Sullivan followed closely, never approaching within seventy-five miles of Fort Niagara. But the spring and the summer passed before Sullivan was able to move. Congress showed its usual indifference, and the men were in no way provisioned for such an expe-

dition. At one time all the officers in the New Jersey brigade sent in their resignations. In doing so, not even Washington could accuse them of lack of patriotism. Their families were actually suffering for the necessities of life, for the soldiers had received no pay for months. The officers insisted that they must return to their homes and provide for their families. Washington made a protest to the New Jersey legislature, which brought help for the time being, and the men resumed their duties. Before Sullivan could obtain supplies for his men he had to indulge in reproaches to Congress which were more candid than courteous, and which made him many enemies.

It was late in August when Sullivan was ready to move. He found the enemy in force near Elmira. This force was placed in a position protected on two sides by a bend in the river, and strengthened in front by a breastwork which was artfully hidden by woods and underbrush. Into this ambush it was expected that the American forces would march. Joseph Brant led the Indians, and the Butlers, father and son, fiercest among the Tories, were the commanders of the loyal militia. The Americans knew well that should they fall into the hands of such enemies, no quarter would be shown, and in case of defeat, victory would be turned into massacre. But this stratagem was not successful. A rifleman who had climbed a tall tree discovered the whole plan, and by his discovery defeated it. Sullivan had three thousand men, led by able and experienced officers. He sent a portion of his army to face the Indians and force them into fight. Another portion was sent quietly through woods and swamps for an attack on the rear and flank. The enemy was caught in its own trap, and when the artillery broke in upon them from the rear, crying, "Remember Wyoming!" they took to headlong flight.

Sullivan's army resumed its march in two days, and for weeks kept on its way leaving behind it the most utter desolation. Never before had Indians attained such a degree of civilization. They had built themselves towns and comfortable log huts, conveniently furnished and surrounded by excellent orchards and fields. Sullivan spared none of these. His relentless destruction set back the civilization of the Indian permanently. Never since, except among the Cherokees, have they shown the industry, frugality and self-respect which they did at that time. Thousands of fruit-bearing trees were cut down. Two hundred bushels of Indian corn and immense quantities of potatoes, beans and other products of their farms and gardens were destroyed, as well as forty villages. The Indians were left with neither shelter nor food to

carry them through the winter, which was close at hand, and which proved to be one of terrible severity. It was little wonder that when any of Sullivan's men fell into their hands they were tortured in that manner of ingenious cruelty of which only the savage is capable. Sullivan went as far as the most western settlement of the Six Nations, called Seneca Castle. From here he retraced his footsteps, having lost, in a long series of encounters, only forty men. Upon rejoining Washington's army he resigned his commission. He had done the work appointed him and had done it well, but the reproaches which he had heaped upon Congress for their neglect of the national army caused them to accept his resignation without demur.

At this time, or a little before, an expedition was undertaken from Louisiana, which, in the final settlement between England and the United States, probably did more than anything else towards securing the territory west of the Mississippi to the United States. This expedition was led by Galvez, the young and ambitious Governor of Louisiana. A declaration of war had been made by Spain against England. The bonds of friendship between Spain and the United States were therefore strengthened, and Galvez joined with Pollock, the agent of Congress, in moving against the British forts, Manchac, Baton Rouge and Natchez. They also succeeded in capturing eight English vessels on Lake Pontchartrain, and a few months later took Mobile. The following year Pensacola, the last post in Florida in British possession, was also reduced by Galvez. But for this, in the final adjustment, the United States might have been bounded by the Mississippi river on the west.

The war had now lasted for five years. Clinton was still of the opinion that the quickest way to bring it to an end was to overrun the thinly settled southern country and compel the people to swear allegiance to the King. By dividing the Union there, it was hoped that the rebellion could be suppressed. The national army was in despair. Washington mustered only about fifteen thousand men, and of these not more than eleven or twelve thousand were in the ranks. The time was approaching when many of the terms of enlistment would expire. For months the pay of the soldiers had not been forthcoming. They were often hungry, all were poorly clothed, and some were actually naked. Had it not been for foreign loans, the nation could not have been sustained. It was this wretched army of half-starved men which Washington had to bring against Clinton's well-cared-for troops. A common commander would have done one of two things—he would either have

lost heart and surrendered, or brought on a rash attack to bring an end to these desperate straits. But Washington's military genius was equal to the occasion. His policy was to watch warily every movement of the enemy, to harass, annoy, delay, and to seize those rare opportunities where a blow could be struck in safety. Clinton was lacking in that energy which sustained Washington, and while it seemed to lie in his power to win victory, he preferred to remain passive. Clinton believed that should he make both the South and North points of attack that he could crush either one or the other, for Washington, it was obvious, could not divide his forces. Charleston was still in possession of the Americans, being held by General Lincoln. The Americans were anxious to regain Savannah, and a plan was laid by which D'Estaing was to return from the West Indies, join with Lincoln, and move upon Savannah for the purpose of recapturing it. They did so, and demanded surrender. The answer of Prevost, the commander of the fort, was one of defiance. A siege was sustained there for a month, but as Prevost showed no signs of yielding, an assault was made on October 9th. D'Estaing and Lincoln led the attack with their combined force of four thousand men. The French fleet in the harbor kept up a cannonading of shot and shell. The English had a strong defense, and from behind the abatis and earthworks, kept up a murderous fire. The American bravery displayed was superb. Sergeant Jasper, who had restored the flag to its place when it was shot down at Fort Moultrie, was killed here in defense of his colors. Between eleven and twelve hundred on the American side were killed, among them Count Pulaski. The British lost less than fifty. This ended the siege of Savannah. The French fleet set sail for the West Indies and Lincoln retreated to Charleston. Clinton now resolved upon energetic measures for the reduction of the whole South.

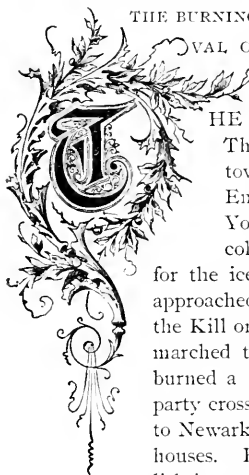
FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Ramsay's "American Revolution in South Carolina."
Stone's "Border Wars of the American Revolution."
"Siege of Savannah." Anon.

CHAPTER LXIII.

“Whom Can We Trust Now?”

PLANS OF THE TWO ARMIES—SIEGE OF CHARLESTON BY THE ENGLISH
—CAPTURE OF THE AMERICAN ARMY AT THE SOUTH—
THE BURNING OF CONNECTICUT FARMS—ARRIVAL OF ROCHAMBEAU—TREASON
OF GENERAL ARNOLD.



THE winter of 1779-80 was one of great severity. The sufferings of the American army at Morristown were almost unendurable, and even the English, in their comfortable quarters at New York, were not a little annoyed by the extreme cold. The English constantly expected an attack, for the ice was so solid that the town could be easily approached. Lord Stirling led his Continentals across the Kill on the ice, at Elizabethtown, to Staten Island, marched two thousand men north to the Narrows, and burned a fortified house and several vessels. Another party crossed the North river in sleighs, and marching to Newark, burned the Academy and sacked some of the houses. Expeditions of this sort served to keep the English in expectation of a general attack. Clinton's ambitious designs for subduing the southern colonies were not a little delayed, and it was the middle of March before he was ready to take the final steps for investing Charleston. Meanwhile, the American envoys begged for more extensive help from France. Franklin and his associates, who represented America in France, were doing work of as much importance to the independence of this country, as were Washington and his devoted generals. Lafayette visited France to join his solicitations to those of Franklin. Together they persuaded the court to send nearly six thousand men, under Count De Rochambeau. The expedition was a splendid one. It sailed in April, at the time that Clinton appeared before Charleston and demanded surrender. General Lincoln, who was in command of the American defense at that

point, sent word that he should hold it to the last extremity. This he did. The English fleet crossed the harbor, and closed slowly around the city. The American troops, defending the city at the rear, were met by the enemy and defeated, so that all of Lincoln's available roads for retreat were cut off. On the eighth of May the town surrendered, and the Continental troops and seamen were held as prisoners of war. The entire southern army of America was thus in the hands of the British. Savannah and Charleston, the foremost seaports, were captured and held by the enemy. The British army in Georgia and South Carolina numbered nearly fourteen thousand men. Clinton's plan of subduing the southern colonies seemed to him, and to everyone else, only a question of time. In spite of all lessons, however, the English continued to under-estimate the inherent patriotism of the American heart. Clinton issued a proclamation requiring all persons to take an active part in settling and securing his majesty's government, and declaring that all who refused to do so should be considered enemies and rebels. In all of the southern States there were many who were willing to remain neutral, but comparatively few—aside, of course, from the open Royalists—who were willing to take up arms against their own countrymen. In the popular protest which was made to this proclamation, a Major James was sent to ask the commander of a British post at Georgetown for an explanation of the proclamation. The commander replied: "His majesty offers you a free pardon, of which you are undeserving, for you all ought to be hanged; but it is only on condition that you take up arms in his cause." Major James, the American, replied that those whom he represented would not submit to such conditions. "Represent! You damned rebel, if you dare speak in such language I will have you hung at the yard arm." James had no weapons, but for answer he knocked the British officer down with a chair and left him senseless. James and his four brothers were, after this, among the leaders of the partisans of the State.

When the news of the surrender of Charleston reached Morristown, it had a very dispiriting effect upon the troops. The English counted upon this, and on the sixth of June, six thousand troops were marched from Staten Island to the village of Connecticut Farms. The militia of the country fought every step of the way with them, falling back slowly and coolly before the superior numbers of the English, but they were unable to protect the village, and Connecticut Farms was burned. The wife of the Rev. James Caldwell was killed by a shot through the window of the room where she was sitting with her

children. A few days later, when the English had undertaken another movement, the husband of this murdered woman was among the leading spirits of the defense. The engagement took place at Springfield, and in spite of the utmost efforts of the Americans the place was taken and burnt. When the men were in want of wadding for their guns, Caldwell distributed hymn books among them with the exhortation, "Put Watts into 'em, boys!" After the burning of Springfield, the enemy returned to Staten Island.

By the 11th of July, De Rochambeau arrived in Newport with his troops, now swelled by the addition of a fleet to twelve thousand men. Washington wished to move at once upon New York, but many of the French were ill from the effects of a troublous voyage, and their commander would not consent to action. So, to the great disappointment of the people and of the army, the autumn passed in inactivity.

As Washington was returning to his army from an interview with Rochambeau, at Hartford, in Connecticut, his unexpected arrival at West Point discovered the gigantic treason of General Arnold. Arnold was a man of proud and haughty spirit. As a soldier, his bravery and dash were never questioned. As a gentleman and a patriot, there was always some doubt of him in the minds of those who knew him best. His naturally arrogant nature had been irritated by the neglectful conduct of Congress in not paying that tribute to his ability which he felt that it deserved. This is urged as his only motive for his treasonable actions. For several months he corresponded with the British Commander-in-chief, giving him all the military and civil news which could be of any use to the enemy. While Arnold was in command at Philadelphia, various charges had been brought against him by the State, for which he was taken before a court-martial. After a public rebuke from the Commander-in-chief, he was restored to the service and under pretense of being disabled from duty in the field by an old wound, was given the command of West Point. He took this for the sole purpose of betraying his trust and selling himself at a high price to the English. No post in the country was of greater importance to either side than that of West Point. It commanded the navigation of the Hudson, and to a degree the communication with Canada, as well as that between the Northern and Southern States. The garrison by which it was held numbered more than three thousand men. These were defended by one hundred guns. With the betrayal of the place, large stores of provisions, ammunition, and the greater part of the men would inevitably fall into the hands of the English, and a blow

would be struck at the American cause which would render success more than doubtful.

In order to make the final arrangements, it was necessary that a personal interview should be held between Arnold and some representatives of General Clinton. Major Andre was the officer chosen by Clinton, as being a man of discretion and bravery. Arnold dared not trust any one on his own side with a knowledge of his villainy, and determined to converse with Clinton's emissary himself. He determined, too, to take as little personal risk as possible, and after making several ineffectual efforts to induce Andre to come within the American lines, he at last succeeded. It became necessary that if the plan was to be carried out, it should be done immediately, and under stress of this pressure Andre consented to leave the British ship, on which he had put himself that he might be nearer to Arnold, and to come on shore within the American lines. Hiding his uniform under a long overcoat, he took a boat and was rowed to the foot of Long Clove Mountain, about six miles below Stony Point, where he met Arnold. There, hidden in the bushes, the conspirators talked through the night. At dawn, Andre was taken to Arnold's headquarters and concealed there. To escape with his news was a difficult matter. The vessel in which he had been brought had moved farther down the river, and he was obliged to risk a ride through the country. To provide against suspicion, Arnold gave his confederate a pass made out to John Anderson, which allowed him to pass White Plains and beyond. Mounted upon a good horse, Andre began his perilous ride through the country. He was within half a mile of Tarrytown, when he was stopped by three men who wished to know his business and destination. How so brilliant a man could have blundered in the carrying out of a scheme of such paramount importance, it is not easy to see, but in the alarm of the moment he confided that he was a British officer. The men took him to the nearest military post. Here the pass of John Anderson seemed to be a sufficient explanation of his presence. But his gait betrayed the fact that he was a soldier, and the matter was investigated.

No one was willing to believe that one of the most trusted generals of the American army was a stupendous traitor, and it was some time before that idea even occurred to any one. The commander of the post to which Andre was taken wrote a letter to Arnold concerning the mysterious person, John Anderson, and asking an explanation. When Arnold received it he was at breakfast with two of Washington's aids.



ESCAPE OF THE FUGITIVE

He saw that his treason would soon be known in all its enormity. He quietly went into another room, told his wife, in a few hurried words of his peril, mounted a horse at his door, and riding to the river side, took a boat. Then, tying his handkerchief to his cane as a flag of truce, he sailed to the British ship, the *Tulture*. It was afternoon before his escape was noticed.

Andre was hung. He had risked his life to oblige his commander, and under the promise of the reward of a large sum of money. He failed in his scheme, and received the punishment due a spy. It has been the fashion, both in England and America, to sympathize with him greatly because he was young, high born, scholarly and brave, but he did not act the part of a hero in the cause in which he died. No one who has read history can help contrasting his dramatic self-consciousness—for he wrote and talked much about his sense of honor and his bravery—with the modesty and devotion of Nathan Hale, the spy who died regretting that he had not another life to give his country. Washington offered to exchange Andre for Arnold, but Clinton was a man of honor, and would not break his word to a traitor, even to save a man who was the victim of his plans and his friend.

The British government showed its gratitude to Arnold by giving him a commission as Brigadier-General in the army, and 6,315 pounds sterling in money. His wife and all of his children were pensioned, and throughout their lives received half pay as retired officers. But Arnold received no more respect among the English than among his own countrymen. Later, in the southern campaign, Cornwallis positively refused to have him in his command. That spirit of brilliant daring which had distinguished him in the American army never again showed itself. In the victories which he won for the English he showed more of the spirit of a murderer and a marauder than of a general.

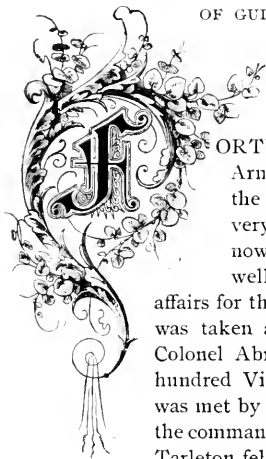
FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY—"Trial of Benedict Arnold."
- "Trial of Major John Andre."
- "New York City in the American Revolution."
- Tuckerman's "America and her Commentators," (French auxiliaries.)
- BIOGRAPHY—J. N. Arnold's "Life of Arnold."
- FICTION—E. P. Roe's "Near to Nature's Heart"
- POETRY—Harte's "Caldwell, of Springfield."
- Freneau's "Arnold's Departure."
- Bradley's "Andre's Last Moments."
- DRAMA—Calvert's "Arnold and Andre."
- Lord's "Andre."
- Dunlap's "Andre."

CHAPTER LXIV.

"I Have Sent You a General."

CORNWALLIS AND GATES AT THE SOUTH—THE COMMAND OF THE
SOUTHERN FORCE GIVEN TO GENERAL GREEN—THE
BATTLE OF KING'S MOUNTAIN—BATTLE
OF GUILFORD COURT HOUSE.



FORTUNATELY no serious harm came of Arnold's treachery, but to the people, and to the Commander-in-chief in particular, it was very discouraging. "Whom can we trust now?" asked Washington, sadly. It might well be a moment of gloom, for in the South, affairs for the time seemed hopeless. After Charleston was taken and the army moved through the State, Colonel Abraham Beaufort was sent, with about four hundred Virginian troops, to harass the enemy. He was met by thirty cavalry and mounted infantry under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel Bamastre Tarleton. Tarleton fell upon the Americans without giving them time for defense, and when they threw down their arms and begged for mercy, he cruelly killed them. It was not a battle, but a massacre, and won for Tarleton that reputation for cruelty by which he is remembered to this day. Had not the country been filled with partisans likely to rise at any time, this might have seemed the end of the war in the South, but since there was not a citizen who was not likely at any time to become a soldier, it was impossible to tell when the country was conquered. The loyal partisans of the Carolinas and of Georgia were obliged to content themselves at this time by harassing the enemy in every way possible. Sumpter, Davie, Marion and many others were the leaders of desperate bands of men who hid themselves in the swamps and thick woods of the southern country, and sallied

forth at unexpected moments to annoy and injure the enemy. The camp of Marion was hid in the swamps of the Pedee, and so securely concealed, that even his men had sometimes to search for hours before they found it.

Cornwallis, a soldier on the old plan, used to military precision and well-regulated warfare, was not a little chagrined and vexed by hostilities of this sort. He was never certain where he would find the enemy, and when he did find them he could not rely upon their keeping in battle array. They were very much more apt to disperse, baffle pursuit, and only appear again when they could strike an unexpected blow. When he learned that Baron De Kalb was marching southward with Maryland and Delaware troops, Cornwallis was prompt in his measures to intercept them. Gates had now been appointed by Congress to conduct the campaign, and he hastened forward with cavalry from Virginia and North Carolina, for the purpose of forming a junction with De Kalb. The American army numbered three thousand men, most of whom were raw recruits, without discipline, sufficient arms, or comfortable clothing. The British troops were veterans, but were fewer in number than the Americans. Gates wished to wage active warfare, although he must have known that his men could not be relied upon to stand steady fire. Gates sent Marion with his men into South Carolina on a reconnoissance, ordering him to destroy all the bridges and boats on his way, that the British might have no means of escaping to Charleston should they be defeated. But Cornwallis had no intention of being defeated. He was as anxious as Gates for action, and with far better cause. On the 15th of August, 1780, both armies moved, each with the intention of surprising the other. At the first fire the Americans broke ranks and fled, but a portion of the militia had the courage to check the advance, and the fight continued till night forced them to desist. When morning dawned Cornwallis was able to take in all the weakness of his opponents. He posted his best men opposite the untried Virginia militia, who, as he expected, fired a single shot, threw away their arms and fled. The panic spread along the lines, and a great part of the army fled without a blow. The Continentals, under De Kalb and Gist, fought with coolness and decision, pushing the enemy before them. But they were finally so hard pressed that one-third of them were killed or wounded and the rest were forced to seek safety in the woods. De Kalb, the distinguished French commander, fell under eleven wounds. His clothing was stripped from him by the soldiers, and it was only when he was discovered by Corn-

wallis that any attention was paid to his needs. Gates' army was practically annihilated, and the militia, who never felt under obligations to remain in organized force, returned to their homes. Within a few days Gates gathered together such of his men as could be found, with the intention of forming a new army, making his headquarters one hundred and eighty miles from his dreadful defeat.

Cornwallis determined to subdue South Carolina before Congress could send another army. With Tarleton and Ferguson, two unrelenting persecutors of patriots, to help him, he started out on a journey through the State. In many of the smaller engagements all through the southern country Cornwallis had had reason to believe that success would soon crown the English arms. He therefore followed the Americans with enthusiasm and on the 8th of October fought the battle of King's Mountain, near the boundary line of North and South Carolina. Here Cornwallis suffered, losing about one-fourth of his fighting force. He sent to New York for reinforcements and spent the time mainly in attempts to meet with Sumpter, or Marion, or some of the other partisan leaders who waged constant hostilities. In the autumn, Green arrived to take command of the remnant of the army which Gates had so nearly destroyed. He came with Washington's warm recommendation, but it was feared that he could do little, so reduced was the southern army and so illy provided with necessities. Green did not believe that the army could sustain an active campaign, and began with a policy exactly opposite to that of Gates. His plan was to avoid a general battle as long as possible, to delay the enemy at every step of his progress—to tire him out, as it were. His army moved into South Carolina in two bodies, the larger part of which was commanded by the General himself and the other by Morgan. Green moved steadily towards Cornwallis, and only halted when he was about seventy miles east of him. Tarleton was sent in pursuit of Morgan, who, it was feared, threatened the whole line of posts in the rear of the British army. So great was his anxiety that Cornwallis himself, instead of moving upon Green, tried to intercept Morgan. This American general was therefore forced into an engagement. He chose a field of open woods in which his cavalry could easily manœuvre, and behind which there were two hills which he could use in case of need as a protection. He posted four hundred men on the first eminence and in front placed militia and skirmishers. On the second eminence was Colonel Washington's famous cavalry and a corps of mounted infantry. Behind them were the horses and militia, ready either for pursuit or

flight. Eight hundred men were on the field and all were so well disposed, that when Tarleton looked at them he thought that the enemy was at least two thousand strong. The English came on with a rush—one of those charges which have made them famous in battle fields all over the world. They were met with a deadly fire, and when the first line was broken through, the second stood valiantly for a time and then gave way. Colonel Washington, with his cavalry, charged upon the wing, broke straight through a line and charged again from the rear. He found himself then at the rear of the other wing of the forces, and fell upon them there, while Morgan conducted the conflict in front. The English prayed for quarter, and it was with much difficulty that the American commanders kept their soldiers from slaughtering Tarleton's men as Tarleton's men had slaughtered so many of their comrades. Tarleton lost six hundred prisoners out of his thousand men; one hundred were dead upon the field; his two guns, his colors, eight hundred muskets, one hundred dragoon horses and a large part of his baggage train were in the hands of the enemy. Upon the American side only twelve were killed and sixty wounded. But still Green knew that discretion compelled him to act upon the defensive rather than the offensive. His orders to Morgan were, therefore, to retreat and join the main army, which he did. Cornwallis pushed on through the State, and Green slowly retreated before him in good order.

The American army grew, by reinforcements from the Virginia and Carolina militia, to forty-three hundred men, but as nearly three-fourths of this force were raw recruits, the strength of the army was not materially added to. March 15, 1781—the winter having been passed by Green in eluding Cornwallis—Green made a stand near Guilford Court House and awaited the enemy. The battle field was well chosen, the men being under good commanders. They were well placed, and there was no essential point of weakness except the inexperience of the greater part of the men. The British, as usual, advanced steadily and quickly, and as usual the American militia fired one shot and then fled. But a few of them held their ground until the British charged with their bayonets, then they also fled, and the conflict was left to Green's regulars who fought desperately. Colonel Washington, with his splendid cavalry, was there, in which one expert swordsman cut down thirteen of the enemy. There were many hand-to-hand encounters. The fight was a desperate one, but Cornwallis' force was so held that in the end the Americans retreated, though they did so slowly and in good order. Cornwallis lost nearly one-fourth of his army. The victory

was with the British, but they paid far too great a price for it. Green's army was too exhausted to venture an attack the next day and Cornwallis, who said that he was tired of going about the Carolinas in search of adventure, wrote a letter to his Commander-in-chief, begging that he might be allowed to quit the Carolinas and put his army in march for Wilmington. Green started after him in hurried pursuit, but he was not able to overtake him.

FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Draper's "King's Mountain and its Heroes."

FICTION—W. G. Simms' "The Partisan."

C. H. Wiley's "Alamance."

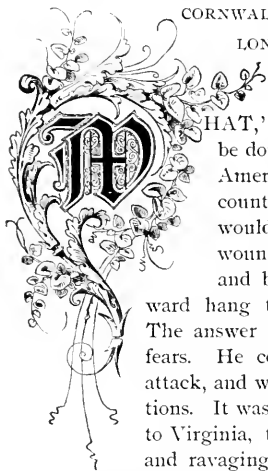
POETRY—"Battle of King's Mountain."

William C. Bryant's "Song of Marion's Men."

CHAPTER LXV.

The United States of America.

ARNOLD'S EXPEDITION—BATTLE BETWEEN CORNWALLIS AND LAFAYETTE—THE SIEGE OF YORKTOWN AND SURRENDER OF CORNWALLIS—THE SACKING OF NEW LONDON BY ARNOLD.



WHAT," Arnold once asked of a prisoner, "would be done with me if I should be captured by the Americans?" The prisoner replied: "If my countrymen should catch you, I believe they would cut off that lame leg, which was wounded in the cause of freedom and virtue, and bury it with the honors of war, and afterward hang the remainder of your body on gibbets." The answer was, probably, a reflex of Arnold's own fears. He could no longer be relied upon for daring attack, and was sent by Clinton upon marauding expeditions. It was he who was selected to lead the expedition to Virginia, the sole purpose of which was harassing and ravaging any part of the country where he could do so with safety to his men. Arnold had with him a force of nine hundred. He landed at Westover, on the James river, and marched to Richmond. Here he divided his troops, remaining, himself, in Richmond, to destroy much private property, military stores and public archives. The detachment which he had sent on an excursion of destruction was met by Baron Steuben, but not checked by him. Arnold went as far as Portsmouth, wreaking his anger and bitterness upon the country he passed through. Congress and the Commander-in-chief were seriously distressed. Their impulse was to send immediate help, but this they were in a bad condition to do. Thirteen hundred Pennsylvania men had mutinied. There had been a misunderstanding about the term of their enlistment, and the neglect which they had sustained at the hands of Congress irritated them beyond endurance.

They were not lacking, as their many hard-fought fields testified, in patriotism, but their physical suffering, added to a sense of having been imposed upon, was more than they could patiently stand. That they were patriotic, is shown by the fact that the emissaries sent by Sir Henry Clinton, offering them aid and protection if they would join the English standard, were delivered to the proper authorities to be executed as spies. With a great effort the States raised a large sum of money to quiet the complaints of the soldiers. In February, Washington was able to make preparations for a campaign in Virginia, which should oppose Arnold's progress. He sent a detachment of twelve hundred New England troops, under Lafayette. These he ordered to the head of Chesapeake bay, where they were to embark for the lower part of Virginia. The British fleet had been recently disabled by a storm, and Washington was anxious that his French allies should seize this time to send the whole French squadron to the bay, in aid of the movement under Lafayette. These started, but in an engagement with the English were defeated, and sent back to Newport. When Clinton heard this, he sent General Phelps, with an additional force of two thousand men, to take command in Virginia. These followed the same plan which Arnold's troops had done. They did not fight, but they ravaged. Steuben was sent to pursue him, and the two generals chased each other about the country, without either much profit or harm. The great point with the English was to deprive Green of men and supplies.

Cornwallis was still at the south, and hoped to conquer the colonies by moving northward from Georgia. When his force moved up to join that of Arnold and Phelps, Lafayette was largely outnumbered, and he fell back to make a junction with Antony Wayne, who was approaching with eight hundred Pennsylvania men. Cornwallis had little respect for Lafayette. So boyish was the young French general that the Englishman could not believe that he understood or could apply military tactics. But the first engagement between the forces was a drawn battle. Lafayette's men in the retreat were manœuvred with cleverness. The vexation of Cornwallis was added to by the fact that Clinton begged him to send three thousand of his men northward to his relief. Cornwallis was ordered to put himself behind the defences at Portsmouth, and, as soon as he started for this place, Lafayette followed after in close pursuit. Lafayette received some severe cheeks on this march.

Green, meantime, was marching southward. One of the English forts was taken. This success was due to the erection of a wooden

tower of logs, so tall that it could overlook the stockade. Here the sharpshooters could pick off the garrison without danger to themselves. In course of time other forts were taken by the same means. Thus the hostilities at the South progressed. They were made up mostly of skirmishes, to which the name of battles could not be appropriately applied, but the fighting was fierce, and the consequences marked. The personal partisanship of the colonies grew, rather than decreased, and all the while a net was slowly closing about the English. Green was frequently defeated and compelled to retreat, but as the enemy followed up his forces, they became only the more enmeshed in the web which he was weaving about them. Washington himself crossed the Delaware and reinforced Lafayette. Following him came Rochambeau with his force. Clinton was mewed in New York, and, as his call for reinforcements showed, was continually expecting an attack from Washington. In fact, Washington had been threatening that city all summer, and his rapid movements toward the South were unknown by Clinton for some time. De Grasse, the admiral of the French fleet, had been requested by Washington to come from the West Indies and join him in the Chesapeake. As Washington neared the lower part of that bay and learned that the summons had been promptly obeyed, he rode back to tell Rochambeau himself, waving his hat and calling to the French commander like a child. This, he felt sure, was the herald of victory and peace. Fifteen hundred men were carried down the Chesapeake Bay in boats to the mouth of the James river. The rest went to Annapolis by aid of the French frigates and then marched overland. Washington had time to stop for a day at his beautiful home, Mount Vernon, and to entertain Rochambeau and all the other officers for a few hurried hours. On the arrival of this large force Cornwallis withdrew behind the fortifications which he had built to defend Yorktown. The American and French generals promptly laid works by which the town might be approached—for the first time conducting a regular siege by the system of scientific and technical warfare. On September 30th the town was surrounded. Cornwallis did all that he could to annoy the men at work. This was the utmost that he could do. On October 9th fire was opened by the besiegers, and one by one the batteries and cannons of Cornwallis were rendered useless. He wrote a letter begging Clinton to come to his help lest army and navy should be lost. He made one attempt in the night to cross the York river and escape, but a violent storm put an end to these plans, and on October 19th this brave general surrendered upon honorable terms. His most

important redoubts had been carried by assault. He had been crowded within the innermost part of his works. All avenues of escape were shut off. There were many sick and wounded among his men, and it would have been selfish and grossly inhuman to have required more fighting from them. On the very day that he surrendered, Clinton sailed from New York to the relief of Yorktown, but learning that every British soldier in Virginia was a prisoner of war, put back again.

With it he sent the history of a dishonorable triumph which he hoped would counterbalance it somewhat. This triumph was that of an expedition against New London, commanded by Arnold. Arnold landed his force at the mouth of the Thames river on September 6th. He divided his force in two columns and marched one column up each side of the river. His own home had been in New London, and he made use of his local knowledge of the town to direct the troops which had been sent to destroy it. Cornwallis, it is said, refused to have him under his command in Virginia, and it was this that caused his diversion northward. The expedition against New London had been proposed by the Commander-in-chief to divert Washington's attention from the South. It was hoped that he might return to the protection of New England. New London was surrounded and burnt. The militia of the neighborhood gathered in Fort Griswold, but they had not nearly force enough to man the parapets. Arnold's men were crazy with liquor. These poured over the earthworks and demanded surrender. Ledyard, the American commander, ordered his men to throw down their arms and surrender to Major Bronfield, who was at the head of the Englishmen. That officer stabbed Ledyard with his own sword as he surrendered it and a general massacre followed in which the whole garrison were killed or wounded. Of these, only three had been killed before Ledyard had given the order to surrender. The dead were stripped of their clothing, and when preparations were made for blowing up the magazine of the fort, the wounded were piled upon a wagon and which, being sent rolling down the steep hill, against a tree, many of the wounded were killed by the shock. Groton, on the other side of the river, was also burnt, though Arnold, it is said, had the humanity to direct that a few of the houses, belonging to old friends, should be spared.

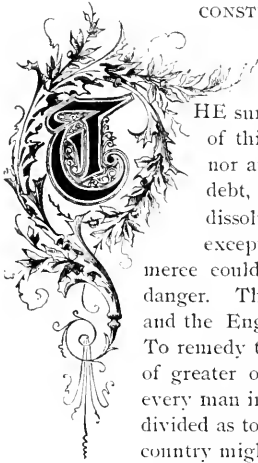
FOR FURTHER READING :

- FICTION—J. P. Kennedy's "Horseshoe Robinson."
 J. P. Simms "The Scout "
 " " "Catherine Walton."
 " " "Woodcraft "
 " " "Foragers."
 " " "Eulaw "

CHAPTER LXVI.

The Plowshare Versus the Sword.

CONDITION OF THE COUNTRY AT THE CLOSE OF THE REVOLUTION—
JOHN ADAMS MADE MINISTER TO ENGLAND—THE DISBAND-
ING OF THE ARMY—THE CALL FOR DELEGATES TO
CONSTRUCT A CONSTITUTION.



THE surrender of Cornwallis did not end the troubles of this country. The people were neither at war nor at peace. They were very poor, terribly in debt, with a standing army which they dare not dissolve still on their hands, and no government except that of the Continental Congress. Commerce could not be conducted upon the seas without danger. The fisheries were not yet open to Americans, and the English still held some of the military posts. To remedy these troubles and bring about a condition of greater order and prosperity, was the ambition of every man in America; but from the outset, they were divided as to the means. One party desired that the country might have a general government. The other preferred that each State should have a government of its own, but that for safety, all should be united in a confederation. Thus, for several years after the war, the country was in a state of half peace, which was most unhappy in its effects. Meanwhile the political disagreements of the people strengthened and multiplied. The weakness of the confederation was becoming apparent. Congress had only an advisory power. It could compel no measures and had always to wait for the sanction of the people in everything. It was remarked at the time that it could not even command the money to buy the quills with which the pens for writing the laws were made. It had been necessary for years to run the government and the army upon loans. Franklin, John Adams and the other commissioners in Europe had

talked constantly about the great value of American lands, and thus money was easily secured from European financiers. But the money borrowed was insufficient to meet the demands of the people, and paper currency had been issued. In course of time two hundred million dollars of Continental currency was sent afloat. Congress seemed to think for a time that to make money it needed only to have a printing press which could send out crisp sheets of paper. But this currency fell steadily in value until, in 1779, one hundred paper dollars were worth only two and a half dollars in silver. The last issue of the Continental currency still exist in the large sheets in which they were printed. The man who received the sheet from the public treasury did not think it worth while to cut it into separate bills. The country now needed specie, and this began to be furnished in small quantities by the payment of gold, which the French commissaries paid for the supplies they required for their men. Trade was slowly opening up with Europe again, and every shipment brought a little valuable coin to the impoverished commerce of America. The right to the fisheries of eastern waters and the right to dry fish on the uninhabited lands of the coast were secured to the Americans by John Adams, who obtained it with great persistence.

Scarcely had the war terminated, when each country charged the other with the violation of the treaty of peace. The disputes were so hot that it was decided to hasten the appointment of a minister plenipotentiary to the court of Great Britain. In February, 1785, John Adams was made Ambassador to represent the United States at that court. Meantime, civil war on the northern American frontier had more than once seemed certain. Vermont was determined to preserve her independence, in spite of the claims of New York on the one side, and New Hampshire on the other. She had asked again and again for admission to the Union, but this had been denied her, partly because of the jealousy of her neighbors, and partly for the reason that the Southern States were unwilling to have a Northern State entered without a Southern one to counterbalance it. Vermont had no political existence as a distinct colony of the Crown, at the time that the thirteen other States were created into a confederacy by the agreement of the representatives, and it was now claimed that this was one reason why her prayer should not be granted. The "Green Mountain Boys" felt that if the Union owed nothing to them, they, in turn, owed nothing to the Union. They therefore threatened to offer Great Britain terms of peace and allegiance. Only then did Congress awaken to the danger

which threatened. In the spring of 1781 a force of ten thousand men from Canada threatened an invasion across the northern border. Washington dared not spare a man from his army. The panic everywhere was intense. Letters were written by certain English generals to Ethan Allen, begging the people of Vermont to return to their allegiance to the King, and promising, in the case of her revolt against the United States, she would be made an independent British province. Perhaps the people of Vermont never had any intention of accepting this invitation, and that they only endeavored to mislead their countrymen for the purpose of making them do as they wished, but it is certain that for a time they were considered as very dangerous and treacherous neighbors by the inhabitants of the States. Concessions were made by New York and New Hampshire, and Vermont was given the boundary lines which she herself had drawn, so that when peace was declared Vermont was not a British province. She was not, however, admitted as a State to the Union till 1791.

In these years of turmoil and perplexity one of the things which distressed Washington, and the people in general, was that the English continued to hold New York, Charleston and Savannah. While the enemy was still in the country it was impossible for Washington to disband his army, and the men, without pay and with little to eat or wear, became exceedingly discontented and mischievous. They now knew by experience what they could do by force of arms, and it is little wonder that they plotted among themselves to bring about a state of affairs which would give them increased importance and comfort. Letters were circulated in camp, setting forth the injustice with which the army had been treated, and suggesting that it refuse to disband unless its rightful dues were paid, and that Congress be told that this army continue to exist and would keep its arms. A meeting was called on the 11th of March. The writers and instigators of the letters had an idea that the army would take the position for America which Cromwell's army took for England. The leader of this army might, as Cromwell had done, place himself at the head of the nation. When news of these letters reached Washington, he asked the representatives of the army to meet him for the purpose of talking the matter over. In the meantime, a second letter was written which was even more outspoken than the first. When Washington met the representatives they had profited by reflection, and were prepared to receive in a humble spirit the stern rebuke which Washington gave them. After setting forth the true nature of these letters, exposing all the sophistry in them, and

calling their treasonable intentions by their right names, he begged the army to have confidence in Congress, and promised to do all that he could himself in their behalf. Resolutions were passed which declared that the army viewed with abhorrence and rejected with disdain the suggestions of the letters. Washington's common sense alone saved the country, if not from overthrow, at least from terrible disaster. The many weary months that followed before the soldiers were allowed to return to their homes, were endured with comparative patience. At one time a company of eighty recruits mutinied and took possession of the State House in Philadelphia, but in a short time this insurrection died from its own feebleness.

On November 25, 1782, New York was evacuated by the British, and Washington marched in with his army to take possession. A little less than a month afterwards the Commander-in-chief met his companions in arms at Fraunces Tavern to take leave of them. It would be difficult to imagine a scene of more dignified pathos. For years Washington and many of his officers had been in the closest association. They were more than comrades—they were friends—and the terrible trials which they had undergone together, the great risks which they had run, the difficulties which they had overcome, bound them as no prosperous acquaintanceship could have done. Washington spoke a few broken words of farewell, and the officers dispersed. On the 29th of December he returned his commission to Congress, which was then at Annapolis in public session.

On September 3, 1783, the final treaty of peace was signed at Paris, by which Great Britain acknowledged the United States to be free, sovereign, and independent. At this time Philadelphia was the chief city in the country, having a population of forty thousand. This was three times greater than that of New York and twice as large as that of Boston. New York was still suffering from the effects of the devastation caused by the war. In New England the people were busy with ship-building and coast trading. Throughout the Middle States manufacturing was rapidly increasing. The Southern States were made up of plantations worked by slaves.

Between England and America the balance of trade against this country was greatly increasing. Within two years after peace was declared the value of goods imported from England into the United States was nearly thirty million dollars, while the exports for the same time were only between eight and nine millions. What little good money there was in the United States was thus drawn off to England, for

the young manufactures of America could not, it goes without saying, compete with those of England. In 1783 the debt of the United States was forty-two millions, and that of the separate States, twenty millions. There was no mint, and both Congress and States continued to issue currency. It was in vain that Congress implored the States to provide means for paying their debts. England, with difficulty, collected the debts due her by the Americans, and it looked as if the States, for commercial reasons alone, might be forced to yield their independence and return to a country which would at least provide them with a government and an exchequer. The Congress of Delegates, which had been formed with such haste at the breaking out of the Revolution, and which was composed of men from all parts of the country, was not equal to meeting the present emergencies. Washington himself, who never made a written statement without deep thought and reflection, admitted that Congress was not able to execute the functions of government. John Adams wrote from England that so contemptible was America in the eyes of Great Britain that she was not considered at all in state matters. Thomas Jefferson was Minister to France, and was obliged to exercise all of his ingenuity to keep America and American commerce rightly before the French court. Since the disregard of government was so great in the old States, it is not surprising that on the frontier this was carried to still greater lengths. In the Wyoming country of Pennsylvania there had long been a dispute concerning boundaries and rights which reached a crisis in 1786. The settlers took up arms and declared their intention to form a new State, but they were suppressed as rioters. In the western part of North Carolina a number of counties set up an independent government, calling themselves the State of Franklin, but this soon came to an end through internal troubles. In several different places efforts were made by armed mobs to prevent the sitting of courts and legislatures, but like most mobs, these were dissolved with comparatively little trouble. About this time Alexander Hamilton proposed that a national convention meet at Philadelphia in May, 1787, for the purpose of providing a new constitution which should give strength to the Federal Government. Addresses were sent to the legislatures asking them to send delegates to this convention. In Congress, the party which objected to the consolidation of power was the stronger, and this only consented to the convention on the condition that it confine itself to revising the articles of confederation.

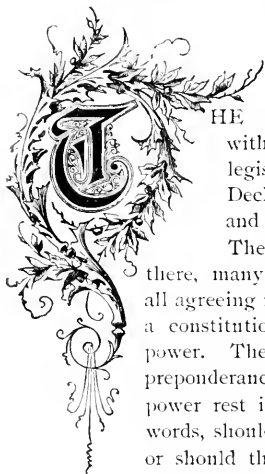
FOR FURTHER READING:

FICTION—J. E. Cooke's "The Youth of Jefferson." "Rose Hill."
J. P. Kennedy's "Swallow Barn."

CHAPTER LXVII.

“First in War, First in Peace.”

THE FORMING OF THE CONSTITUTION—WASHINGTON ELECTED
PRESIDENT.



THE convention met at the time appointed, with George Washington in the chair. The legislative chamber was the same in which the Declaration of Independence had been signed, and many of the signers were then present.

The most influential men of the States were there, many of them differing bitterly in opinion, but all agreeing in their desire to give to the United States a constitution which should add to its dignity and power. The greatest cause of dispute was about the preponderance of power. The question was: Should power rest in the people, or in Congress? In other words, should the general government coerce the States, or should the States be sovereign to themselves? The promise that the convention was only to revise the articles of confederation as Congress desired was, of course, brought to notice. Various plans were laid before the House by Alexander Hamilton, and other leaders of public thought. All of these were considered in turn. Randolph, of Virginia, and Patterson, of New Jersey, had plans of government which were long debated upon. But so angry and hopeless did the debates become, that even the calmest and most judicious despaired of reaching any results. Benjamin Franklin, an old man now, was present, and in the midst of these difficulties and misunderstandings he arose and made this speech: “It is to be feared that the members of this convention are not in temper, at this moment, to approach the subject on which we differ, in a candid spirit. I would, therefore, propose, Mr. President, that, without proceeding further in this business at this time, the convention shall

adjourn for three days, in order to let the present ferment pass off, and to afford time for a more full, free and dispassionate investigation of the subject; and I would earnestly recommend to the members of this convention that they spend the time of this recess, not in associating with their own party and devising new arguments to fortify themselves in their old opinions, but that they mix with members of opposite sentiments, lend a patient ear to their reasonings, and candidly allow them all the weight to which they may be entitled; and when we assemble again I hope it will be with a determination to form a Constitution, if not such a one as we can individually and in all respects approve, yet the best which, under existing circumstances, can be obtained. Before I sit down, Mr. President, I will suggest another matter, and I am really surprised that it has not been proposed by some other member at an earlier period of our deliberations. I will suggest, Mr. President, the propriety of nominating and appointing, before we separate, a chaplain to this convention, whose duty it shall be uniformly to assemble with us and introduce the business of each day by imploring the assistance of Heaven, and asking Its blessing upon our deliberations." The three days were spent in the manner which Dr. Franklin advised, and, on reassembling, the chaplain who had been appointed appeared and led the devotions of the assembly. Dr. Franklin addressed the house first, as everyone expected and desired that he should do. His wisdom, experience, common sense and deep-seated calmness gave a placidity to the convention which it had not had before. With more earnest intentions the convention renewed its work. The Constitution was finally amended. It prescribed that the laws of the United States were, thenceforth, to be administered, not by a confederacy or mere league of friendship between the sovereign States, but by a government distributed into three great departments—legislative, judicial and executive; that the powers of government should be limited to concerns pertaining to the whole people, leaving the internal administration of each State in time of peace to its own constitutional laws, provided, that they should be republican, and interfering with them as little as possible in case of war; that the legislative power of this government should be divided between the two assemblies, one representing directly the people of the separate States, and the other their legislatures; that the executive power of this government should be vested in one person, chosen for four years, with certain qualifications of age and nativity, and invested with a qualified negative upon the enactments of the laws; and that the judicial power

should consist of tribunals, inferior and supreme, to be instituted and organized by Congress, the judges removable only by impeachment. Washington signed the Constitution first, remarking solemnly as he did so: "Should the States reject this excellent Constitution, the probability is that an opportunity will never again be offered to cancel another in peace; the next will be drawn in blood." With three exceptions the Constitution was signed by all the delegates present. The convention, however, which framed the Constitution, was not clothed with legislative power, and the Constitution was, therefore, referred to the several States. In the summer of 1788, nine of the States ratified it. Rhode Island was the last of the thirteen original States to accept the Constitution, which she did in May, 1790. The year of suspense was full of internal troubles. In New York, the brilliant young Alexander Hamilton led the Federal party with dramatic fervor, and when his triumph was made apparent by the ratification of the Constitution, a great festival was held in New York City. There was a procession of traders, merchants, artisans and professional men, who bore aloft on their banners the names of Washington and Hamilton, and a frigate fully manned, called the Federal ship "Hamilton," was borne on wheels through the streets, her cannons replying to the salutes with which she was greeted.

The first Congress met in New York on March 4, 1789. When the votes of the Presidential electors were counted, the first choice was unanimous for Washington. John Adams received the largest number of votes for Vice-President. A special messenger was sent by the president of the Senate to notify Washington of his election. This great man was living quietly at his princely home of Mount Vernon. His home life was very dear to him, and it was with the most painful reluctance that he took upon himself once more the burdens of the nation. As Washington traveled from his home in Virginia to New York, which was now the seat of government, he received enthusiastic greetings everywhere. At Trenton, where he had fought with such brilliancy, a triumphal arch was thrown across the bridge which he was to cross. The arch was supported on thirteen pillars, which were wreathed with flowers and bore inscriptions which must have been deeply gratifying to him. Beneath this arch stood a party of young girls with baskets of flowers in their hands, and they greeted Washington with a song which had been composed for the occasion, strewing flowers before him as they sang. As he neared New York a delegation was sent to meet him. A barge, with a crew of thirteen to represent the

colonies, was for his special use, and following this, with flying flags, came many other boats. The Governor of the State and many other distinguished persons awaited Washington at the wharf and escorted him to his quarters, Washington preferring to walk up the crowded streets that he might seem to enter the city in humbleness and good fellowship. A few days later the ceremony of inauguration took place in the balcony of what was then the Senate chamber. This was called Federal Hall, and it stood at the meeting of four streets, which were crowded to suffocation with people. Washington came on the balcony, and the Chancellor of New York read the inaugural oath to him. After the oath was administered, the people cried, "Long live George Washington, President of the United States!" But this was a reminder of kingly customs which was never repeated for any other President. Flags were raised, cannons were fired and bells were rung, launching in with joyful burst of song the new Republic, with a magistrate at its head who, for wisdom, disinterestedness and pure patriotism, has never been equaled by any following President save one. This was April 30, 1789.

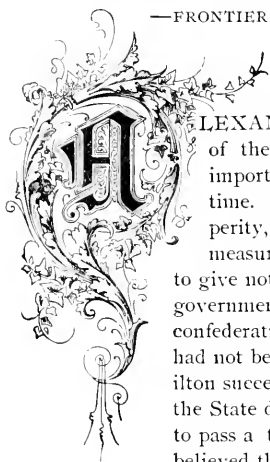
FOR FURTHER READING.

HISTORY—Curtis' "History of the Constitution."
 Frothingham's "Rise of the Republic."
 FICTION—N. M. Curtis' "Doom of the Tory Guard."

CHAPTER LXVIII.

Starting the Wheels of Progress.

HAMILTON'S POLICY AS THE FIRST SECRETARY OF STATE—INCREASE
OF AMERICAN COMMERCE—THE QUESTION OF SLAVERY
—FRONTIER TROUBLES AT THE WEST.



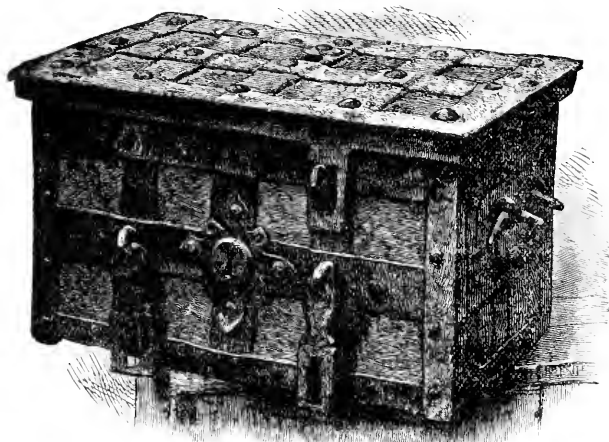
ALEXANDER HAMILTON was made Secretary of the Treasury, an office hardly second in importance to that of the President itself at this time. If the nation was to be restored to prosperity, it rested upon him to devise efficient measures. Hamilton's policy from the first was to give notice to the Old World that the new Federal government assumed all the obligations of the old confederation, and provided, as that enfeebled body had not been able to do, for their discharge. Hamilton succeeded in getting the government to assume the State debts. One of the first acts of Congress was to pass a tariff bill, for Hamilton and many others believed that protection was the only system possible in that stage of national life and in the condition of the civilized world. A national bank was started which was under private direction, and yet served the government by making it owner of one-fifth of the capital stock of ten million dollars and the preferred borrower to the same amount. A hundred minor matters were attended to by the Secretary with equal care. The sale of public lands increased, regulations were made for the coast trade, navigation laws enacted, revenue cutters established, light-houses built, and numerous plans were formed for the sustaining of law and good order. A bill was passed imposing a duty on imported domestic spirits, for the purpose of swelling the revenue. American enterprise soon felt the benefit of these measures. In 1787 the French government issued a decree placing American citizens on the same commercial footing as Frenchmen, and

admitting American produce free of duty. As France had a free trade treaty with England, this act had much to do with the ceasing of commercial hostilities between America and England. When war broke out between France and England, the carrying trade of the world fell into the hands of the United States. The trade with the West Indies became almost wholly American, for French ships could not go there. Spanish trade was carried on under a neutral flag and English merchants found it safer to use American vessels. Great commercial houses came into existence. The trade with China and East India became a source of wealth, and the seamen of America were counted remarkable for their enterprise and courage.

The question of slavery was one of the most important with which the Federal Congress interested itself. It was held that Congress had no power over slavery in the States, but that it had power in the territories. By the ordinance of 1787, all the territory northwest of the Ohio then belonging to the United States, and comprising what is now the States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin, was to be the home of free labor forever. Slaves had become especially valuable in the South by the growth of the cotton industry. In 1793, Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin. America has been the home of many great inventions, but none of them have been of greater importance than this to the Republic. It was the first key which was applied to the unlocking of the natural capabilities of this land. Whitney was the son of a Massachusetts farmer. He chanced to visit Georgia and saw there the great difficulty with which the seed was separated from the cotton. After a few months of hard study he invented a successful machine which in one day, by the labor of a single hand, could do more than was usually performed in many months by the old method. Whitney afterward made a fortune by the invention of fire-arms. The slave was thought to be a necessary part of the cotton trade, and therefore assumed an importance in American affairs which it had never before held. It is very interesting to note how good and bad tendencies seemed to conflict with each other at this period of national history. At this very time an impetus was given to public educational matters which they had never received before. Education for all was a part of the free government. Noah Webster began the publication of his school books and gave his life up to the establishment of a national literature. In these matters the young States led, rather than followed, the older ones. Civilization spread westward and marked its progress by a series of triumphs over the savages and the soil. John C. Symmes

obtained a grant of one million acres, bounded on the south by the Ohio, and on the west by the Miami, and here, in 1788-9, South Bend and Cincinnati were settled.

The English still retained some of the frontier posts, and about these the Indians continually flocked. They were persuaded by the English that the Americans had no claim to any territory beyond the Ohio, and in truth every State westward had been an encroachment upon Indian territory. Indian warfare upon the settlers, therefore, took on its worst form here. At no time were the settlers safe. The man who left his home in the morning never knew whether he should



WASHINGTON'S TREASURE CHEST. (From a photograph.)

return alive to it or not, and would have felt no surprise if on returning he should find his wife and children dead in his cabin. Several villages were plundered and burned, and every train of emigrants was sure to encounter danger, if not death. On the Ohio and other rivers many tragic scenes were enacted. The Indians would watch for a passing boat, murder the passengers, and let the boat-load of corpses drift with the flow of the stream to the settlements below. In seven years fifteen hundred persons were killed or captured by the Indians on the Ohio, and twenty thousand horses were stolen. It was in vain that the Americans sued for a treaty of peace. War was forced upon them—a

war which ended in disaster the most serious ever sustained by an American army in its battles with the Indians.

In the month of September, 1790, General Harmar was intrusted with the duty of subduing the fierce tribes on the Miami and Wabash. The general had with him a body of three hundred and twenty regulars, who, being reinforced by the militia of Pennsylvania and Kentucky, formed a corps of four hundred and fifty-three men. Upon his approach the Indians set fire to their villages, but they could not be brought to an engagement. At length the Americans were unexpectedly attacked and severely disabled. After this humiliation to the United States, Congress, in the following year, 1791, strengthened the national military force and placed in the hands of President Washington larger means for the protection of the frontier. General St. Clair, then Governor of the territory west of the Ohio, was appointed commander of a large force. When Washington parted from him he impressed upon him again and again the danger of a surprise. "You know how Indians fight," said he; "I repeat it, beware of a surprise." St. Clair went out into the wilderness with these words ringing in his ears, but on the 4th of November, while the regulars were encamped on one of the tributaries of the Wabash and the militia were resting upon a high flat on the other side of the stream, they met with that disaster which Washington had especially warned them against. The Indians rushed upon them at a most unexpected moment, taking advantage of a division of the army. Nearly half of St. Clair's force were slaughtered and he beat a headlong retreat. His militia had proved useless, and even his regulars had been panic-stricken. The Indians, as usual, fought from cover, and against them the fire of the Americans, aimed at random into a dusky forest, could have little effect. The pursuit was kept up about four miles, when, fortunately for the Americans who still survived, their foes could no longer restrain their eagerness for plunder, and returned to rifle the bodies of the dead soldiers. For thirty miles the terrified Americans continued their panic-stricken flight, throwing away their arms as they went. They left their wounded at Fort Jefferson and retreated to Fort Washington, at Cincinnati. Washington learned of the disaster with rage and agony. Never since the interview at the battle of Monmouth did he so give way to that terrible wrath of which he was capable. Thirty-eight officers and six hundred privates were killed or missing, and twenty-one officers and two hundred and forty-two privates wounded. Among the camp-followers were two hundred and fifty women, most of whom were killed or captured.

No time was lost in sending out another expedition. The indignation of the people had been roused to the highest pitch. It was said that during the fight several British officers were seen upon the field with the Indians, who had come down from Detroit to urge on their savage allies. The man sent out to take St. Clair's place was General Anthony Wayne. His courage was reckless, and gained for him the name of "Mad Anthony," which he was called by his soldiers more in love than criticism. Washington himself carefully instructed Wayne in his mode of warfare. Nearly two years passed before Wayne had gathered his four thousand men and built the line of forts necessary to success. He followed Washington's directions implicitly during all this time. He never permitted his army to be divided, and marched with open files that a line might be quickly formed in the thick woods. It was his habit to halt early in the afternoon, that the camp might be surrounded by a rampart of logs before nightfall. His cavalry laid waste the country for many miles on each side of the line of march. When he had four good forts behind him to offer protection in case of retreat, he decided to attack. The Indians had consented to an engagement, and on the morning of August 20th the two forces met on the banks of the Maumee river. The action was short and decisive. The cavalry attacked the flanks of the Indian line and the infantry charged with the bayonet upon the centre, and as soon as they caused a retreat, poured a volley of musket balls into their foes. The Indians were pursued until within reach of the guns of the British fort. Here the Americans encamped for a few days, destroying all the property in the neighborhood. Wayne's loss was comparatively small, and for a time the Indians were effectually subdued. A treaty was made with them in 1795, by which they ceded a large tract of land to the United States, and from that time the more rapid settlement of the West began.

FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Flint's "Indian Wars of the West."

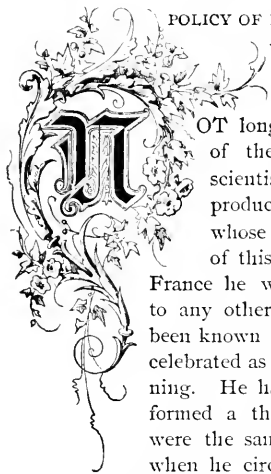
FICTION—Galt's "Lawrie Todd."

Bird's "Nick of the Woods."

CHAPTER LXIX.

The Courth Times of Washington.

DEATH OF FRANKLIN—THE HUMOR OF WASHINGTON'S TIME—THE
POLICY OF HAMILTON—THE PENNSYLVANIA
WHISKY RIOTS.



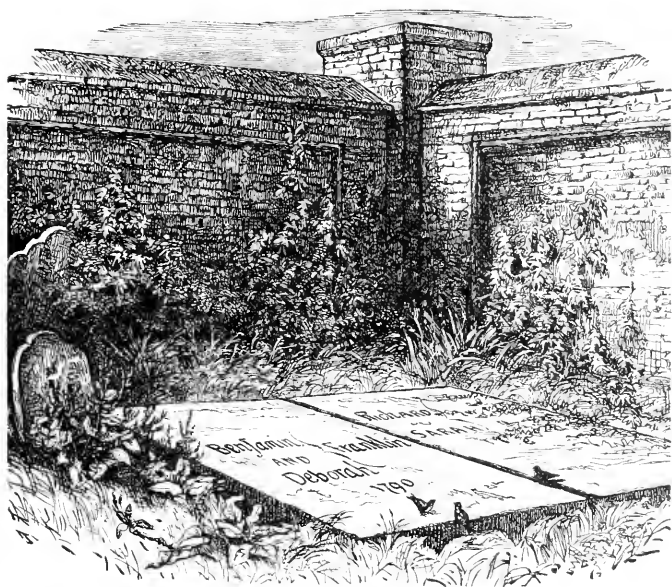
NOT long after Washington became President, one of the greatest of Americans died—the first scientist, perhaps, which this country had ever produced. This was Dr. Benjamin Franklin, whose early life has been told of in another part of this history. In the courts of England and of France he won a consideration which was not paid to any other envoy from the young nation. Had he been known for no other reason, he would have been celebrated as the discoverer of the electric fluid in lightning. He had long been a student of electricity, and formed a theory that lightning and the electric fluid were the same thing. He was very much laughed at when he circulated this idea, in a little pamphlet, and

he made up his mind to prove it to the satisfaction of everyone. He and his young son together made a great kite of a silk handkerchief, and fastening a piece of sharpened wire to the stick, went out to fly the kite in a thunder-storm. As a low thunder-cloud passed, the electric fluid went down the string of the kite and when Franklin touched the key that he had fastened to the string, his knuckles drew sparks from it, showing that the electricity was there. In a short time he invented the lightning rod.

In all public matters he had great influence, and he founded more good institutions and benevolent enterprises than any American of his time. The last public act which he performed was to sign a memorial to Congress, in behalf of the Philadelphia Anti-Slavery Society, asking the abolition of slavery. He lived to be eighty-four, and died on April 17, 1790. Throughout the States the mourning was universal, and

in France the Assembly went into mourning for him three days. At this time the customs and habits of the people of this republic were very different from those of the present day. It was a ceremonious age—an age of display—and the traditions of royal splendor still clung, in a degree, about the capital of the republic. President Washington was a man of great wealth, and one who believed that there should be distinctions in men, and that honor should be paid to those who deserved it. He desired, for instance, that the official name of the President should be "High Mightiness," which were the words employed in describing the Stadtholder of Holland, which at that time was a republic. But this title was objected to, and Excellency was substituted. Washington's levees were very stately entertainments, and differed exceedingly from the free and easy receptions which are at present held at the White House. Once in two weeks at precisely three in the afternoon, the doors of the great dining-room were thrown open. By the fire-place stood President Washington, with members of his Cabinet and other distinguished gentlemen about him. His usual dress was a black velvet coat, with white or pearl-colored waistcoat, yellow gloves, and silver knee buckles and shoe buckles. His hair was powdered and gathered in a silk bag behind. In his hand he carried a cocked hat, and wore a long sword, with a scabbard of polished white leather. The habit of shaking hands would have been considered too familiar at that time, and Washington greeted each of his guests with a courteous bow. Mrs. Washington gave brilliant evening levees, which it was considered a great privilege to attend. Dinners and public meetings were held in all the large towns of the nation on the birthday of the President, and the local poets were expected to address odes to Washington. When Washington drove to the sessions of Congress, he went in a state coach, the body of which was in the shape of a hemisphere, cream-colored, bordered with flowers around the panels, which were ornamented with figures representing cupids, and supporting festoons. On great occasions the coach was drawn by six horses, on ordinary occasions by four, and on Sundays by two only. The driver and postillions wore liveries of white and scarlet. This display and formality upon the part of the President influenced the whole nation. It was, indeed, but the continuation of the state in which the Governors had lived. The forms of politeness were very elaborate, and the people devoted much attention and money to their dress. In Connecticut and Massachusetts there were still sumptuary laws against extravagance, but at this time they were not enforced. Even the

clergymen wore wigs, with gowns and bands, in the pulpit, and cocked hats on the streets. The Judges of the Supreme Court, in winter, wore robes of scarlet faced with velvet, and in summer, very full black silk robes. It is still their practice to wear the latter sort. The ladies dressed their hair with powder and pomatum, and built it to such a great height above the head that it became necessary to have carriages of greater height made than those which had previously been used. At this time Sedan chairs were used as well as carriages, and in these



FRANKLIN'S GRAVE, PHILADELPHIA.

the grand dames were carried from place to place by two servants in dashing liveries. The ladies themselves were gorgeous in rustling brocades, powder, patches and jewels. These patches, which were of black silk, were pasted upon the face, and were cut in a great variety of fantastic shapes. There were crescents, stars, anchors and even elephants, and a belle would sometimes decorate herself with at least twenty of these. Gentlemen dressed as brilliantly as the ladies, and in

the same sort of fabrics. If a gentleman went abroad, he appeared in his wig, white stock, white satin embroidered vest, black satin small clothes with white silk stockings and fine broadcloth or velvet coat. If at home, a velvet cap, sometimes with a fine linen one under it, took the place of a wig, while a gown, frequently a colored damask lined with silk, was substituted for the coat, and the feet were covered with leather slippers of some fancy color. No gentleman's costume was complete without a snuff-box, and on these little trifles the greatest art was expended. A salutation between friends was immediately followed by an offer of snuff, and a man who did not take it laid himself open to the charge of being discourteous.

The nation still felt the influence of Puritan prejudices, and was only beginning to tolerate the theatre, which at one time had been considered by the stern citizens of Massachusetts as one of the worst beguilements of Satan. Massachusetts is spoken of, because in religious and philosophic matters she was the leader. Private theatricals, which Washington and other fashionable people occasionally had at their houses, gradually paved the way for public entertainments. Musical concerts were allowed at this time, which, in itself, marked quite a growth in public taste and liberality, for at one time they would have been considered the height of frivolity. Balls were popular, and some of them were given on a very large scale. The French Ambassador gave one in Philadelphia which was so large that a building was erected on purpose for the entertainment. It is said that on fete days the hair-dressers were kept so busy that ladies had to employ their services at 4 or 5 o'clock in the morning, and to sit upright all day to keep from disturbing the head-dress.

It was thought that when the army was disbanded the country would be filled with beggars, for it could hardly be expected that men who had been kept without other occupation than that of arms for eight years, would easily adapt themselves to ways of industry again. But they went back to their workshops and farms, and places were found for them by a people who, although they were capricious, were certainly not ungrateful. At that time the working people did not, as now, depend upon great monopolies for support. Cloth was spun in almost every house; tallow candles made in every kitchen. Wood was to be had almost for the chopping, and neighbors exchanged the produce of their farms and gardens.

Secretary Hamilton was doing all in his power to restore the commercial confidence of the people and place the government on a

sure financial basis. In trying to do this, he took some measures which were very distasteful to the people. A bill drawn up by him was passed in Congress in March, 1791, which increased the duty on imported spirits, making it from twenty to forty cents a gallon, and what was still more offensive to the people, laid a tax on distillation. The people of various States, held meetings, appointed committees, and adopted resolutions asking for an unconditional repeal. Those who accepted the offices of collectors were treated with every sort of indignity. Some of them were tarred and feathered, their houses were burned, and they were ostracized, although many of them were men of high business and social standing. The insurrection gathered rapidly and finally organized for resistance to the law. Under the leadership of John Holcraft, known more widely as "Tom the Tinker," the mob attacked several houses in Pennsylvania. The handful of militia was forced to surrender to them, and the mob burned several houses belonging to the law-and-order party. A few days later the mail to Philadelphia was stopped and the insurgents took from it several letters which gave accounts of the riot. The writers of these letters were severely persecuted. The insurgents next summoned the militia to meet on Braddock's Field, August 1, 1794. Seven thousand came armed and provisioned for four days, but when they were told to capture Fort Pitt, they dispersed.

President Washington was alarmed, and fearing that the rebellion might spread through the country, called on New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland and Virginia for fifteen thousand men, and sent commissioners to the scene of the disturbance, with power to arrange for peaceful submission any time before September 14th. As these commissioners soon returned without having come to any satisfactory arrangement, the troops were put in motion with the Governors of New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Virginia at the heads of their men, under the leadership of General Henry Lee. Most of the disturbances were in the counties west of the Alleghanies, and the soldiers were obliged to cross these mountains, suffering not a little from disease and exposure as they did so. The insurrection died quickly upon the appearance of the troops. Some of the leaders left the country and some were arrested and brought to trial. Only two were convicted of treason, and these were pardoned by the President.

FOR FURTHER READING:

FICTION—Charlotte Walsingham's "Annette,"
H. H. Brackenridge's "Modern Chivalry,"

CHAPTER LXX.

A Democracy.

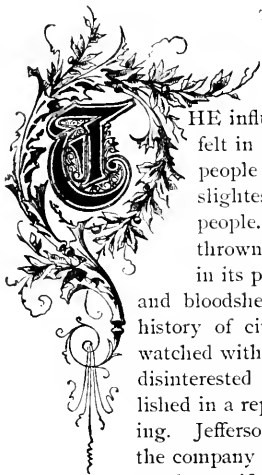
THE POLITICAL PARTIES OF THE YOUNG NATION—THE JAY TREATY—

ELECTION OF JOHN ADAMS TO THE PRESIDENCY—

ALIEN AND SEDITION LAWS—

TROUBLE WITH

FRANCE.



THE influence of the French rebellion was strongly felt in America, and the discontented among the people showed a willingness to imitate, upon the slightest provocation, the example of the French people. The old French monarchy had been overthrown, and an attempt made to establish a republic in its place—an attempt which had led to violence and bloodshed which had never been equaled in the history of civilized nations. This struggle Americans watched with much interest. They were not free from a disinterested desire to see their great ally firmly established in a republic such as they themselves were founding. Jefferson had long been in Paris, and was among the company of brilliant fanatics whose heads were afterwards sacrificed to the relentless commune. Of all of them, he was the only one whose dream of power was finally realized, and who, in later years, stood at the head of a nation. The party in America which sympathized with the French and had democratic simplicity for their watchword, were inclined to quarrel with what was considered the ostentation of President Washington, as well as with the vigorous legislative measures of Secretary Hamilton. The men of this party first called themselves Republicans, and afterwards Democrats. Samuel Adams, as well as Jefferson, belonged to this party. The party on the other side were known as Federalists, and desired that the States should all be governed by one central government, and that to an extent the judicial and executive laws of England should be imitated. Wash-



Franklin Pierce

ington, Hamilton and John Adams were among the foremost Federalists. Questions of international commerce were of the greatest political interest at the time, and the Federalists associated themselves with protection, while Jefferson and his friends headed the free trade movement. From time to time different influences were brought to bear upon each of these parties, and cliques or bands of partisans came up which held individual views of some of the questions of the day. The Democrats were especially fearful that the national government would become too powerful and destroy the rights of the States. They feared that it might grow aristocratic and exclusive, as in European nations.

As early as 1791 a minister had been sent from England. He made laws concerning the capture of French merchant vessels, which created the strongest indignation among the Democrats. No minister arrived in America from France until 1793, and the man sent was Edmund Charles Genet, who was received with great enthusiasm by the French party in the United States, because he was one of the "Liberators" who had beheaded Louis XVI. He was intoxicated with the wild notions of the French revolution, and had not the common sense to perceive how different was the government which he was now sent to confer with. He quarreled with the laws, threatened to head an uprising of the people, and at last became so intolerable that the Americans were obliged to request that he should be recalled.

The British continued to wage war upon the French vessels, and issued an order directing cruisers to make a prize of any vessel carrying the produce of a French colony or transporting supplies to such colony. This, of course, was a serious interference with America as well as France, and Congress decided to stop all commercial intercourse with Great Britain till the western posts still held by the British were surrendered. Washington was anxious to avert war and in 1794 sent an envoy extraordinary to London to negotiate a treaty of amity and commerce. Chief Justice John Jay was the man selected for this enterprise. The minister for foreign affairs in England met Jay half way, and in a short time a treaty was agreed upon, which went into operation in February, 1796. The withdrawal of British troops and garrisons from the western posts was agreed upon, as well as free inland navigation and trade to both nations upon lakes and rivers, except that the United States were excluded from the domain of the Hudson Bay Company. There were many other particulars relating to trade by water which need not be mentioned. Great Britain was to pay for losses by her irregular captures by British cruisers. Citizens of either country were

permitted to hold landed property in the territory of the other, and no private property was to be confiscated in case of war. Ships of war were to be received in each other's ports. Citizens of either in the other's territory were not to be molested, and criminals escaping from one country to the other were to be delivered up. When this treaty and all of its particulars were known about in America, it aroused the warmest controversy. The President and most of his Cabinet were fairly well pleased with it, but the Democrats were so incensed against it that they proposed to nullify the law by withholding the necessary appropriations to carry out the terms of the treaty. Their particular argument was that it benefited England at the expense of France, and that it was for the benefit of northern trade, and failed to provide for the loss of slaves who fled with the British armies at the close of the Revolution. The needed appropriations were obtained only after fierce debates, only four votes from States south of the Potomac being given in its favor. The South was ambitious for ascendancy, and already the breach between the two sections became noticeable.

Washington's second administration was coming to an end. During the eight years of his government the nation had gained more confidence in herself and had increased greatly in size. In 1792, Kentucky had come into the union. This region was at first, as has been said before, considered a part of Virginia. The Spanish government had, at one time, endeavored to induce the Kentuckians to declare themselves independent of the Union, and to join Louisiana, which still belonged to Spain, but these efforts failed. In 1796, Tennessee became a State. This part of the country had been explored much earlier than Kentucky, and, indeed, may have been visited by De Soto, long before the settlement of the Eastern States. It was, however, settled much more slowly than Kentucky, and the settlers came chiefly from North Carolina. It was here that the attempt to establish the State of Franklin was tried. This failed, after two or three years of unhealthy existence. Being so near North Carolina, Kentucky could hardly fail to be a slave State.

At the end of Washington's Administration there were sixteen States in the Union. The first census of the nation, which was taken in 1790, showed a population of about four millions. Washington refused a third election to the presidency. John Adams, of Massachusetts, who had been Vice-President, was chosen by a small majority over Thomas Jefferson, who, as it will be remembered, belonged to the Democratic party. In those days the candidate who received the second number of votes in

the presidential election was made Vice-President, and thus Thomas Jefferson was given that position, although he and the chief executive differed so widely in politics. From the breaking out of the Revolution, President Adams had been one of the most unselfish of the patriots. He had assisted in framing the Declaration of Independence, and had been one of the Ambassadors to make the treaty with France at the close of the war. But notwithstanding these services he was elected against the protest of a large part of the nation. Never since has any election been conducted with such bitterness of spirit and such public revilement. The volcanic government of France had thrown into this country many burning brands. The young "philosophers," as they termed themselves, could not, and would not, understand the principles of this government. They were accomplished in vituperative rhetoric, and astonished the moderate-speaking Americans with all sorts of wild speeches, which were mistaken for eloquence. So troublesome did they become that on June 18, 1798, were passed what were known as the alien and sedition laws. By these, naturalization was restricted and the President was permitted to send out of the country such aliens as he thought dangerous to the United States. He was permitted to give license to aliens to remain during his pleasure, and, if he wished, to exact bonds for their good behavior. Aliens who had no license might be imprisoned, and masters of vessels who brought them might be fined for not reporting their arrival. The sedition law made five offences penal. These were: "Defaming Congress or the President;" "exciting the hatred of the people against them;" "stirring up sedition in the United States;" "raising unlawful combinations for resisting laws," and "aiding foreign nations against the United States." A wild storm of dissent greeted these acts, which, indeed, were hardly in keeping with the sentiments which America had always voiced, calling herself the asylum for the oppressed of all nations. In the legislatures of Virginia and Kentucky it was declared that Congress had acted beyond its constitutional powers; that the States were not bound to obey, and that each State had the right to determine the question of constitutionality. With these resolutions, which Vice-President Jefferson sanctioned, the Democratic party strengthened its power. The Democratic party urged that these laws were such an insult to France, which had many distinguished citizens in America, that she could well be excused for the diplomatic measures which she took to annoy America. At one time nearly one thousand American vessels were detained or captured by the French government, and when the American

government sent an envoy to France, the Directory ordered him to quit the country. The English cruisers were also exceedingly annoying, and the commanders had no hesitancy in searching for English seamen on board of American vessels, under which pretext they frequently kidnaped American seamen.

Adams was constantly hampered by the peace policy of Jefferson, who did not believe that war was right in the new brotherhood which had grown out of the French commune. But Adams had determination enough to insist that another commission should be sent to France. When this commission reached that country they were told that they would be received by the Directory if they chose to make a handsome loan to the French Republic. When the envoys refused to accept such humiliating terms, they were ordered out of the country. Congress determined to take a hostile attitude, and ordered the standing army to be enlarged by twelve regiments. A navy of twenty-four vessels was ordered, and merchantmen were allowed to arm themselves against the French vessels of war. In theory, the two nations were at war, but there were no engagements between them except among the cruisers. Two serious conflicts took place in the West Indies. A heavy French privateer and a French frigate were captured and sent into port as prizes. But at this time Napoleon came into power, and everything was changed. He received a new embassy sent out by Adams with great cordiality. The French cruisers were told to leave American vessels alone, and America changed her aspect to one of friendship. The Federalists, who were for war, were thoroughly dissatisfied with peaceable measures. The President tried in vain to take a middle course which should please both parties, and succeeded in pleasing neither of them. The unpopular sedition law was one of the things most talked of in the election of 1800, by which the administration of the government fell into the hands of the Democrats, to remain there for a quarter of a century. But in the meantime, there had been several occurrences of national interest outside of this.

FOR FURTHER READING:

BIOGRAPHY—"Life of John Jay."
HISTORY—Carlyle's "French Revolution."

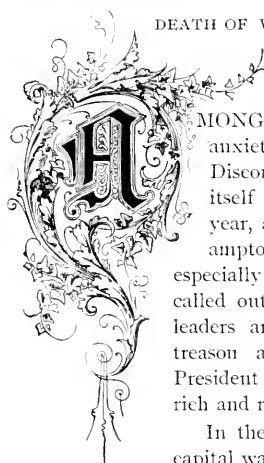
CHAPTER LXXI.

A Modern Lucifer.

THE FRIES INSURRECTION—SELECTION OF THE NATIONAL CAPITAL—

DEATH OF WASHINGTON—LOUISIANA—

AARON BURR.



AMONG the things which awakened national anxiety was the Fries insurrection of 1799. Discontent with the window tax began to show itself in 1798, and, in the spring of the following year, a rebellion against it broke out in Northampton county, Pennsylvania. It spread rapidly, especially among the Germans. The militia was called out, the insurgents soon subdued, and their leaders arrested. John Fries was tried for high treason and found guilty after two trials, but the President pardoned him. Fries afterwards became a rich and respectable citizen of Philadelphia.

In the same year, 1799, the site of the national capital was decided upon. Some of the members of Congress were very anxious that the place should be New York. This the southern members fiercely opposed, and threatened, as they always did when in any way annoyed, to secede from the Union. There was some thought of placing the national government at Philadelphia for ten years, but a desire among many of the members that a permanent site should be selected, hindered the carrying out of this plan. At last it was agreed, "that a district of territory on the river Potomac, at some place between the mouths of the eastern branch and Connogochegue, be, and at the same time is, hereby accepted for the permanent site of the government of the United States." To this city was given the name of Washington. The plan of the city was laid out by Washington himself, and the present stately city shows how excellent these plans were. But it was desolate enough when John Adams took his wife to the White House, and placed her in charge of that mansion,

which in those days was considered by many as far too elaborate an edifice for a republican president to live in. The long, unimproved avenues, up which few people went, the deep morasses and thick groves, were dreary surroundings for the nation's capital and the residence of its President. Mrs. Adams complained that so few people lived round about that they could not even get fire-wood drawn for their comfort. The malaria which arose from the swamps was dangerous indeed, and the expense of keeping up such a huge building was entirely out of proportion to the President's salary. But these inconveniences were, of course, soon remedied. There is no question but that the site is a beautiful one for a large city. A level plain, three miles in length and two miles wide, extended from the banks of the Potomac to a range of hills bounding the plain on the east. The hill on which the Capitol stands has a noble view. This is the centre of the city, and the avenues radiate from it, thus making the city the shape of an amphitheatre. The institutions of government, art, science and education stand at great distances from each other, and have given to the city its name of "The City of Magnificent Distances."

Before the year 1799 had closed, George Washington was dead. The party bitterness which had called down so many criticisms upon him vanished suddenly out of sight. The nation recognized how much it owed to his wisdom, uprightness, unselfishness and honest pride. Congress declared what has since passed into a proverb, that he was "First in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen," and Europe recognized the fact that one of the three great men of the age had died. These three were Napoleon, Wellington and Washington, and of them, Washington can safely be said to be the most disinterested.

When Thomas Jefferson followed Adams as President of the United States, in 1801, his way was made comparatively easy for him, by the fact that Napoleon was now at the head of the French nation. The confused and complicated foreign conditions were altered. Especially did this affect the West, where there had been a continual distrust between the Americans and the Spaniards in Louisiana. Upon three different occasions the western men had been upon the point of war, by the authority and with the sanction of the President. One of the chief causes of the quarrels was, that the Spanish commanders at New Orleans refused to let the men from the territories unload any of their exports at the New Orleans wharves. To end these troubles, Jefferson sent Robert Livingstone to Paris, with a proposal to purchase the island on which New Orleans stands, and the right of passage to the

sea. The original territory of Louisiana, be it understood, as a French province, comprised the valleys of the Mississippi, the Ohio, the Missouri and the Illinois. At the close of the French war, in 1763, France ceded to Great Britain all that portion of Louisiana lying east of the Mississippi and north of the Iberville, about a hundred miles



WASHINGTON'S GRAVE AT MOUNT VERNON.

above Orleans; at the same time France transferred to Spain all the rest of her territory on the western side of the Mississippi. In 1800, the province was returned to France by Spain. This will account for the fact that the officers at Orleans, civil and military, were sometimes French and sometimes Spanish. At the time referred to the Intendant

of Orleans was a Spaniard, although France was the possessor of the province. Robert Livingstone agreed, for the United States, to pay sixty million francs to the French nation for the province of Louisiana. When Napoleon heard that the negotiation had been completed, he said, with great satisfaction, "I have given England a rival." In America there was comparative indifference in regard to the purchase. The western men were glad to be protected from the petty authority of the foreign officers at Orleans. But Robert Livingstone said—and no one contradicted him—that the United States had no wish to extend their boundaries across the Mississippi. The government took possession of the new territory by a public act on the 20th of December, 1803.

The Vice-President at this time was Aaron Burr, one of the most brilliant of American statesmen. When he had held the position of Vice-President for three years, he committed the great crime which began his downfall. He challenged Secretary Hamilton to a duel and killed him, as both Burr and Hamilton and everyone else knew that he would. In the election of 1804, when Jefferson was returned to office, Burr was not re-elected, and George Clinton became Vice-President in his stead. Burr was as restless and ambitious as ever. He had lost his friends, but his thirst for power had only increased. It is hard to tell just what motive actuated him when he drew about him a company of adventurers, and sailed down the Mississippi river with all the theatrical display and assurance of a conqueror. He and his followers were in search of fortune, authority, and empire. No crusade of the middle ages could have been more romantic or vaguely ambitious in its purpose. Many people thought, and still think, that his intention was to take Orleans and establish a western empire. Burr was a man of very rare magnetism. The man who wished to disbelieve in him must first avoid him. He was courtly, elegant, and accomplished, haughty with men, and suave with women. He had offended Washington by his profligacy, and on that account had been removed from Washington's military family at the time of the Revolution. As he went through the West, he took care to arouse in the pioneers of that country the hatred which they had so long felt against the Spaniards of Orleans. He begged them to remember Philip Nolan, a young agent of the American government, who had gone to Texas to collect horses for the Spanish post at Orleans, under a pass from the Governor of Texas. Through the treachery of the Spanish government he had been killed and all of his companions sent to the mines—mines in which so many unfortunates met with a mysterious end.

Burr visited Blennerhassett's Island, in the Ohio, not far from Marietta. Harmon Blennerhassett and his beautiful wife were emigrants from Ireland. They had purchased this exquisite island, built a fine house upon it, and lived there in state which was little less than princely. Even at that time of open and prodigal hospitality, they were celebrated for the splendor of their entertainments, and their large circle of distinguished friends. Mrs. Blennerhassett was a woman of



DUEL BETWEEN BURR AND HAMILTON

queenly manners and of keen intellect, and the cleverest men and women in the nation were glad to know her and to have the entree of her house. Through her influence Burr won the co-operation of her husband, and Harmon Blennerhassett united himself to the adventurer and placed a large part of his fortune at his disposal. In the summer of 1806 Burr made the attempt which he had so long threatened. On Blennerhassett's Island he collected boats, provisions, arms and ammu-

nition. Here a goodly number of recruits joined him, and as the boats sailed down the Ohio and the Mississippi, other confederates were picked up by the way.

Jefferson, for many reasons, had shut his eyes to Burr's actions as long as possible, but was now forced into publishing a proclamation which denounced the whole scheme, and the United States Marshals of Virginia, Ohio and Kentucky made attempts to arrest the expedition, which, however, were not successful. As Burr neared Natchez, he had thirteen boats and sixty men in arms. Here the adventurer's party found the militia of the territory in arms to oppose them, and they were all taken to Natchez as prisoners. Burr was tried, but pronounced guilty of no crime, which showed how thoroughly the western people sympathized with him. Disguised as a boatman, he disappeared into the wilderness. In the middle of January he was discovered and arrested, and conducted to Richmond, Virginia, to be tried by the United States on a charge of high treason. Such, however, were his personal attractions still, that when he was placed under guard, it was thought necessary that every man in the squad should be taken apart and compelled to swear that no interviews should be held with Burr upon the road, and that he should not be permitted to escape. His trial lasted three or four weeks, and ended in a verdict of not guilty.

Burr became an exile in Europe, where he lived in great poverty and was shunned as a felon and an outlaw. He was ordered to quit England and while in France was kept constantly under the eyes of the police. Weary of such existence, he returned to America and resumed his profession of the law, but he never won the confidence or the friendship of any of his countrymen. His daughter Theodosia alone remained loyal to him. She was the wife of Governor Allston, of South Carolina. When she heard that Burr was returning from France, she set out from Charleston to meet him at New York, but the boat in which she sailed was never heard of again. This blow was the bitterest which Burr had endured, and the rest of his miserable life was spent sorrowfully alone. Blennerhassett died bankrupt and broken-hearted on the Isle of Guernsey. A few years later the beautiful Mrs. Blennerhassett died in New York, in the most abject poverty, and was buried by some lowly Irish women.

A fall more profound than that of Burr's has seldom been known. He came within one vote of being President of the United States; he died almost, if not literally, a beggar, with whom other beggars might have been ashamed to associate.

CHAPTER LXXII.

Decatur's Tribune.

THE PIRACY OF THE BARBARY STATES—WAR WITH TRIPOLI—
EXPLOITS OF OUR NAVAL HEROES—THE
TRIUMPH OF AMERICA.



CONSIDERING the comparative weakness and the insignificance of the Barbary States, it seems strange that for twenty years they should have forced the United States to submit to the depredations of their corsairs. From its earliest years the American government made a mistake in its treatment of the semi-barbarous States of northern

Africa. As early as 1787 a treaty was ratified with Morocco, for which Congress paid eighty thousand dollars. In 1796 another was made with Algiers, by which it was agreed to pay forty thousand dollars for the release of thirteen Americans held as slaves in that State, a large amount of cash besides, and an annual tribute of twenty-five thousand dollars as

the price of exemption from further aggressions. When there chanced to be a delay in the first remittance the Dey exacted still further tribute, and a ship of war costing about one hundred thousand dollars, was sent to him as a present for his daughter.

The Barbary States subsisted almost entirely by piracy, and it was not upon the United States alone that they levied such tribute, but upon European nations also, though, of course, England or France at any time could easily have humiliated them had they taken the trouble to do so. Thousands of Americans were taken captive and millions of dollars were spent for ransom. It was a common thing for notices to be read in American churches of the captivity of members of the church in Tripoli or Algiers, and a sum of money was usually raised for the ransom of each. It required four thousand dollars to rescue a captain or a passenger. The Dey said that if the people of the United States

paid him tribute, they were his slaves, and acting upon this principle, he force the frigate *George Washington* to carry his own tribute to the Sultan. This tribute consisted partly of slaves and wild animals, and was carried to Constantinople under the flag of the Barbary States. This insult was more than even Jefferson, with his dislike for war, could endure without a protest.

In 1801 Tripoli herself took the initiative and declared war before America did so. Jefferson sent four of the six American vessels to the Mediterranean. It was his policy to economize in every direction, and he believed that a navy was an unnecessary expense. He thought all that was necessary to protect the country was a few gunboats, capable of bearing but one gun each, which were to be kept under shelter where they could be easily launched in case of necessity. Many small engagements were fought in the Mediterranean which brought no notable results. In August, Lieutenant Sterrett, in the *Enterprise*, of twelve guns and ninety men, fought with a Tripolitan vessel of fourteen guns, off Malta. The Tripolitan vessel struck after a two-hours' fight, and then discharged another broadside when the Americans had left their guns and were cheering for their victory. Sterrett ordered his men back to the guns and raked the treacherous ship from end to end, not stopping till the mizzen mast was shot away, the hull riddled, fifty men killed and wounded and the colors thrown into the sea by the frantic commander. Sterrett then ordered that the enemy should throw all their arms and ammunition overboard. The remaining masts were cut away, the ship completely dismantled and then left to make its way home with a single sail. The Americans did not lose a man. As a matter of fact the Tripolitans were not good fighters, and they relied upon surprising their victims for their piratical successes. Their triumphs had usually been over peaceful merchantmen, whom they terrorized by their wild manner and show of blood-thirstiness. It became frequent for the Americans to destroy their vessels and crews without loss to themselves. In July, 1802, the frigate *Constellation* fought nine gunboats off Tripoli, and drove five of them ashore while the others escaped into the harbor. In June of the next year there was a battle of still greater odds. A cruiser from Tripoli, carrying twenty-two guns, was driven into a bay seven leagues east of Tripoli. Here, with nine gunboats about her and a body of cavalry on the beach, the *John Adams* and the *Enterprise* fought at close range for three-quarters of an hour, till the enemy's guns were silenced and her crew leaped overboard. The Americans were about to take possession of the boat,

when a boat-load of Tripolitans returned to her and re-opened fire. The *John Adams* replied, and the colors on the Tripolitan vessel were taken down. A moment later all her guns were discharged at once and she blew up with an explosion which tore her to pieces.

In 1803, the squadron on the Mediterranean had increased to nine ships, which carried in all two hundred and fourteen guns. The *Philadelphia* captured a Moorish cruiser which the Governor of Tangiers had authorized to prey upon American commerce. Commodore Preble entered the harbor of Tangiers with four of his fleet and asked an explanation of the Emperor, who claimed that he was not responsible for the act of the Governor, and renewed the treaty with the United States.

The *Philadelphia* struck upon a reef in the harbor of Tripoli, and while she was in this helpless state, was attacked by gunboats, and her commander, Captain Bainbridge, was compelled to surrender. The Tripolitans took advantage of an unusually high tide to haul her off and refit her. The American commodore was, of course, anxious to repossess this valuable vessel, or, failing in that, to unfit her for service by the Tripolitans, and Stephen Decatur successfully carried out a strategy by which this end was reached. He ran into the harbor one night in February, 1804, in a small prize vessel, the *Intrepid*. He pretended that the ship was a merchantman which had lost its anchor, and gained consent to make fast to the *Philadelphia*. At a signal his men arose from the decks, and poured through the ports and over the decks of the frigate. The barbarians ran shrieking to hide in the hold or dash into the sea, and in less than half an hour Decatur had cleared the decks, put combustibles in every part of the ship and set fire to them. By the time the *Philadelphia* was in flames the little vessel of Decatur was sailing away out of the harbor without the loss of a man.

On August 3d Preble entered the harbor of Tripoli with his fleet and bombarded the town from his mortar boats. His frigates and schooners were out where they could fire upon the batteries. Of the gunboats, three, for different reasons, were thrown out of the combat and the other three closed with the enemy. One of these, commanded by Lieutenant James Decatur, a brother of Stephen, forced a Tripolitan gunboat to yield, but as he was stepping upon deck, was treacherously shot through the head by the Tripolitan commander. The boats drifted apart and the enemy escaped. Stephen Decatur, in command of another boat, was fighting with might and main. He boarded one of the enemy's boats, and dividing his men into two parties, charged

around each side of the open hatchway, calling for surrender and bayoneting all who resisted. When he had done his work here thoroughly, he closed with the boat where he knew his brother had just been murdered. He boarded this recklessly, and after a fierce fight, singled out the captain who had shot his brother. He was an immense barbarian, armed with a sharp pike. He and Decatur closed in a hand-to-hand fight. Decatur's sword broke at the hilt, and he parried the thrust of the pike with his naked arm. It entered his breast, but he wrenched it out, tore the staff away from his enemy, grappled him and rolled him upon the deck. The savage Turk struggled to draw his poniard, but Decatur grasped his pistol and shot his antagonist, who fell back dying upon the deck. In the midst of this, a blow was aimed at Decatur from behind by a Tripolitan officer. This would doubtless have killed the distinguished commander had not a young sailor named Reuben James stretched out his arm to receive the blow. The life of Decatur was saved, but it was at the expense of the right arm of the young sailor. There were eighty men in the two boats captured by Decatur, and of these fifty-two were killed or wounded. The third boat engaged in the struggle was commanded by Lieutenant Tripp, who boarded one of the enemy's gunboats and by a rebound of his own boat, was left with only ten men on the deck of the enemy. The two commanders fought each other—the Tripolitan with a sword, Tripp with a pike. The American, covered with wounds, was forced to the deck, but with a sudden renewal of strength, succeeded in piercing the Turk with his pike. The rest of the crew surrendered. At the close of the engagement it was found that three of the enemy's boats were sunk and three others captured. The Americans had but fourteen killed and wounded.

A little later than this, Commodore Preble engaged in a conflict with some of the enemy's vessels, in which he lost eighteen men. Most of these were injured by the explosion of the magazines of one of his gunboats. A few days later the bomb ketch *Intrepid* was fitted up as an "infernal," and one hundred barrels of powder and missiles were put in her hold in tightly planked rooms. In the deck, immediately above, were piled one hundred and fifty shells and a great quantity of shot and fragments of iron. The plan was for her to be taken by a crew of men in among the Tripolitan fleet. The combustibles were to be fired and the men make their escape in two boats. There was a thick haze over the water and her movements could not be seen by the enemy. She had neared the enemy's batteries before they saw her and opened fire. Exactly what happened has never been known, but a

light was seen to move horizontally along her deck, then to drop out of sight, and the next minute there was a frightful explosion, a great shaft of fire darting up from the vessel and the blazing rigging and canvas were lifted high into the air. The thirteen bodies of the crew were found two days later mangled beyond recognition. Little or no harm had been done to the enemy by the explosion of the boat.

In November, 1804, Samuel Barron was made Commodore of the Mediterranean squadron, which then consisted of ten vessels, carrying two hundred and sixty-four guns. The United States had never before assembled so large a squadron. At this time America took advantage of a national dispute among the Tripolitans to strengthen herself there. The reigning Bashaw of Tripoli had gained the throne by deposing his elder brother, and the United States agreed to reinstate the exiled prince. They got together a force of adventurers from various nations and the American flag was raised upon Derne—the first time that it ever floated over any fortification on that side of the Atlantic. The town surrendered, and the reigning Bashaw was frightened into making peace. The United States no longer paid tribute, the prisoners in the hands of the Tripolitans were ransomed, and for some time Barbary States ceased to trouble America. But they dealt most unfairly by the exiled prince, whom they had promised to return to his throne. Again he was exiled, and this time without his wife and children, who were kept as hostages by his brother for his peaceful behavior in the future. He complained to the United States that they had left him in poverty and wretchedness, but they paid no attention to his appeal. They were learning lessons in statesmanship!

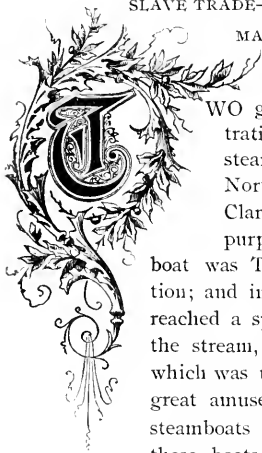
FOR FURTHER READING.

BIOGRAPHY—McKenzie's "Life of Stephen Decatur."
POETRY—C. H. Calvert's "Reuben James."

CHAPTER LXXIII.

“Jeffersonian Simplicity.”

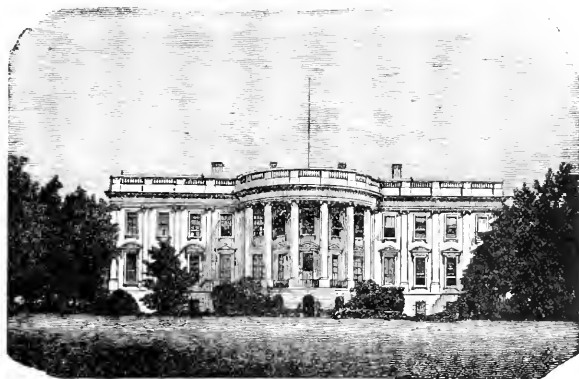
EXPLORATION OF THE NORTHWEST—INTRODUCTION OF THE STEAM-
BOAT—PASSAGE OF A LAW FORBIDDING THE AFRICAN
SLAVE TRADE—THE JEFFERSONIAN POLICY—
MARITIME TROUBLES.



WO great enterprises marked Jefferson's administration. One of these was the invention of the steamboat; the other was the exploration of the Northwest by Meriwether Lewis and William Clarke, whom the President sent out for that purpose. The first person to propose the steamboat was Thomas Paine, in 1778, during the Revolution; and in 1784, James Ramsey built a vessel, which reached a speed of three or four miles an hour against the stream, on the Potomac. James Fitch built one, which was used on the Delaware, and predicted, to the great amusement of everyone who heard of it, that steamboats would one day cross the Atlantic. But these boats were constructed upon a principle which made them impracticable, and the first one built upon the present plan was launched on the Hudson, by Robert Fulton, in 1807. Three years before, Fulton had urged upon Napoleon, in Paris, his plans for the steamboat. Napoleon, always progressive, was willing to witness the trial of a boat and adopt it for the use of his nation, should it prove successful. But the experimental vessel was built too slightly, and the boiler and engine proved a greater weight than it could bear. They broke through it, and sank to the bottom of the Seine. Fulton was dismissed in disgrace, and returned to his own country. The *Clermont*, which he launched upon the Hudson, made the trip from New York to Albany in thirty-two hours, and back again in thirty. Fulton said that the morning he left New York, there were not more than

thirty persons in the city who believed that the boat would ever move one mile an hour. Indeed, he was laughed at very heartily, and the vessel was called "Fulton's Folly." But as it went up the river against wind and tide, at the rate of five miles an hour, throwing showers of sparks into the air and making a great roar of machinery and paddles, the people gave a shout of applause, the first sign of encouragement which the devoted inventor had ever received. After this, steamboats increased rapidly, and, by the suggestion of many thoughtful men, were greatly improved and soon in general use, although it was a long time before an ocean steamer was ever built, and it was not until 1812 that a steamboat navigated the waters of the Ohio.

It was in 1804 that Lewis and Clarke were given their commissions by the President, and started out with a large party to explore the



THE WHITE HOUSE, WASHINGTON.

waters of the Missouri river, cross the mountain range and descend to the Pacific. For twenty-six hundred miles they pushed their flotilla against the current of the Missouri; then, leaving a considerable portion of the party to guard the boats, they crossed the mountains, mounted on horses which they had captured, and discovered the two streams which are known as the Lewis and Clarke rivers. They followed up these rivers to where they joined with the Columbia, and then went on to the sea. Robert Grey, of Salem, Massachusetts, had discovered the river Columbia in May, 1792, he being the first man to carry the American flag around Cape Horn and up the Pacific ocean.

He had named the river after his ship, the *Columbia Rediviva*. Lewis and Clarke met upon their journey with numerous Indian tribes who had never before seen white men—many, indeed, who had never heard of them. This journey was the first ever made by any white man to the Pacific, north of the line of Mexico.

One important event that happened during Jefferson's administration was the passage of a law forbidding the African slave trade. It will be remembered that this trade had existed ever since 1619, and it was agreed when the constitution was formed that there should be no interference with the slave trade until January 1, 1808. More than a year before that time President Jefferson called the attention of Congress to the subject, and congratulated the members upon the fact that they would soon be able to forbid the barbarous traffic. The debate which followed in Congress was very long and bitter. Although no one was in favor of continuing the slave trade, there were wonderfully wide differences of opinion as to the best way of putting it down. It was argued, too, that if it was right to hold slaves at all, it could not be wrong to import them. At length, under the lead of Joshua Quincy, of Massachusetts, and others, a law was passed forbidding the importation of slaves from any foreign country into the United States after the year 1807. But in spite of the law, slaves were secretly imported for many years, until treaties were made with other maritime countries by which the slave trade was declared to be piracy. But it must be understood that the slave trade between the different States of the American Union was not abolished. The only States free from it were those which had incorporated in their charter an act forbidding slavery forever within their borders.

The population of the country had nearly doubled in twenty years. At the end of the first ten years of the century the census showed a population of seven million two hundred and forty thousand. Wealth was increasing in a much greater proportion. After the invention of Whitney's cotton gin the exportation of cotton had increased from one hundred and eighty-nine thousand pounds exported in 1791, to sixty-two million pounds exported in 1811. Not alone in this, but in every direction, increase of prosperity was visible. Ship-building and fisheries were sources of great wealth. The State of Ohio was organized and admitted into the Union in 1802, making the seventeenth State of the Union. When its people adopted a constitution, they incorporated in it some principles which were new to the world, and which were much considered in the formation of other States. To encourage settlement,

they provided that for four years after any settler purchased land of the United States no local taxes should be laid upon it, and Congress met this generosity of the people with another gift, which has been made a precedent in all similar legislation since that time. This law granted to the State one township in each section of their survey for the establishment of its schools. This gave to the new States of America opportunities for public education which are unequalled in the world. Thus it came about that for that State and all which followed it, every man who desired could lay claim to a generous portion of land, and could have, without expense to himself, a liberal education for all of his children.

Emigration to the Ohio valley became rapid. It no longer seemed as far west as it had previously, though people still thought that any man who had looked upon Lake Michigan was a very great traveler indeed. There had been but comparatively little interest felt in that vast stretch of western territory, but the purchase of Louisiana, which more than doubled the area of the national territory, and the tales which Lewis and Clarke brought back of the richness of the mysterious northwest country, aroused an interest which had never been felt before. In the narrative, which the explorers published, they told of finding the buffalo so numerous that in one case a herd occupied the whole breadth of the river a mile wide, and the party had to stop for an hour to see the animals pass by. Trade with the Indians was another spur to western excursions, and a New York merchant, John Jacob Astor, started a trading post called Astoria at the mouth of the Columbia river. But this post was afterwards sold to one of the British fur companies.

Jefferson's administration was very different in all social respects from that of Washington and Adams. From the severity of his life and habits we have gained the expression, "Jeffersonian simplicity." Washington, upon his inauguration, had driven in a coach and six to the capital, dressed in velvet and wearing costly jewels. Jefferson, on a like occasion, rode on horseback in a dress which, though careful, was certainly not ceremonious. When he dismounted he tied his own horse to a post, walked unattended into the Capitol building, and read his address. Upon his second election he did not go to the capital at all, but set the example of sending a "message" to Congress by a secretary. This has been the practice ever since. He did not believe in those stately ceremonies which had graced Washington's time, and he abolished the weekly levees, only opening his doors on New Year's day and the 4th of July, at which time he welcomed any one who cared to see

him. He was a strong believer in universal suffrage, and thought that all men had a right to vote for their own rulers. The Democratic party sustained him in this, but the Federal doubted whether it would be safe to place the ballot in the hands of the people and leave government to popular vote. At that time republican government, even to the most patriotic, was a thing looked on with distrust. Jefferson was very anxious to pay off the indebtedness of the government, and he succeeded in paying thirty-three millions of debt. This was largely done by reducing the expense of government, and to this day it is a mooted question as to whether this economy was wise or not.

A great carrying trade had fallen to America because of the European war, which placed an embargo upon European courts. Holland, Italy and France were largely dependent upon America for sugar, as well as coffee. Tobacco and cotton were also largely exported. The extensive trade of the West Indies was transacted for the most part through the United States. So profitable did the carrying trade become that building and maritime commerce increased in a ratio larger than that of the population. In commercial rivalry with Great Britain, the new nation almost equaled the old in her shipping on the seas. It was not strange that the older nation should look on this with jealousy, and out of this jealousy there grew a rancour which caused the seizure of many an American merchantman. When it was proved that the ship was neutral in the court of inquiry, it would be released, but if by chance the cargo had been perishable, the ship owner had suffered a severe damage for which he could obtain no reprisal.

Thus it happened that American merchantmen were constantly obliged to submit to indignities of one sort and another. Chiefest among these was the impressment of her seamen into the English service, for it was quite common for English officers, seeking deserters from the King's service, to overhaul American vessels and look for the deserters, very frequently taking off with them an American-born man. This trouble culminated in the proclamations known as the Decrees of Berlin and Milan and the Orders in Council. By the Berlin and Milan decrees, Napoleon declared the English Islands to be in a state of blockade, and claimed the right to seize all vessels trading with England or her dependencies. The English Government replied to these decrees by the "Orders in Council" prohibiting all commerce with those parts of the continent of Europe which were under the dominion of France or her allies. Practically, this meant all of Europe except Russia, and laid American vessels open to seizure wherever they might go. The

United States protested against these blockades, and maintained that the blockade of a port must be maintained by a competent force upon the spot. This, of course, was the right and dignified position to take, but the country had no navy to sustain its policy, and this is where Jefferson's economy showed itself to be poor and false. He did not even believe in fortifications for harbors, but thought they should be protected by cannons on wheels, which could be dragged from place to place as they were needed. Thus it was that America was obliged to submit to these insults when native pride prompted every man in the country to resent them. At length, however, the United States frigate *Chesapeake* was overhauled at sea by an English vessel, which fired several broadsides into the American ship. As the *Chesapeake* had gone to sea without any expectation of war, the men were not able to fire a gun, and the English officers carried off four deserters which had belonged to their crew, but had been previously impressed from an American ship. Jefferson forbade American harbors and waters to all vessels of the English navy, and sent a vessel of war with a special minister to London to demand satisfaction. The English offered reparation, but at the same time issued a proclamation, directing commanders to make a demand for all English seamen serving on all foreign ships of war, and to report refusal should they meet with it. There would doubtless have been war as a result of this, had the Americans possessed a navy to fight with. When Congress met in 1807, it prohibited the departure from American ports of all American vessels. No merchandise of any kind was to be exported. The people of the United States, and particularly of the South, were foolish enough to believe that Europe would suffer severely if it did not receive her products, and that they were practically making war against England without expense to themselves or danger to their fellow-citizens. But at the North, where men were engaged in commerce, ship-masters and seamen were naturally dissatisfied with a measure which kept them shut in port. It was actually a fact that the grass grew in the streets and on the piers of the sea-board cities, and as week after week passed, the depression of trade grew deeper, until the fallacy of the measure became apparent to all, and Jefferson awoke to the realization that the States which had been his warmest friends, rebelled against his policy. At this time a presidential election came on.

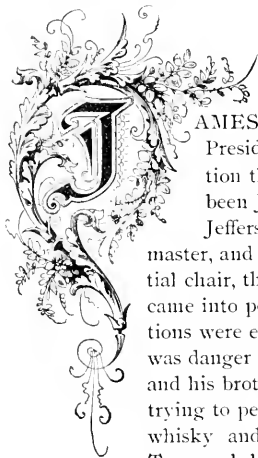
FOR FURTHER READING.

TRAVELS—Lewis' and Clarke's "Expedition to the Rocky Mountains."
 FICTION—Mrs. Stowe's "Minister's Wooing."
 J. C. Hart's "Marian Coffin."

CHAPTER LXXIV.

War Again.

ADMINISTRATION OF JAMES MADISON—THE SOUTHERN WAR PARTY
—DECLARATION OF WAR AND POPULAR PROTEST—
THE TROUBLES ON THE WESTERN FRONTIER—THE CHICAGO MASSACRE
—SURRENDER OF
HULL.



JAMES MADISON, of Virginia, was the next President. He had been a member of the convention that had framed the Constitution, and had been Jefferson's friend upon all occasions. Indeed Jefferson may be said to have been his political master, and he was anxious that when he left the presidential chair, the mantle should fall upon Madison. Madison came into power at a troublous time. The foreign relations were especially unfortunate, and in the West there was danger on the frontier. The Indian chief Tecumseh and his brother the "Prophet" had for a long time been trying to persuade the western tribes to give up drinking whisky and return to the customs of their fathers. Tecumseh held also that the treaty made in 1809, by William Henry Harrison, Governor of the Indiana territory, with several of the tribes, ceded to the government lands which belonged to the Indians. Harrison invited Tecumseh and his brother to a conference, which barely escaped ending in a massacre. The attitude of the Indians was so threatening after this that Harrison, with two thousand men, ascended the Wabash and built a military post at Terre Haute. This was in 1811. Harrison tried in vain to open friendly relations with the "Prophet," but when he found that he could not hope to succeed in doing this, he marched against the Indian village and encamped within ten miles of it, on the Tippecanoe. On the morning

of September 7th his camp was surprised by the savages. The soldiers had the presence of mind to put out their camp-fires, that they might not furnish so ready a target for the arrows of the enemy, and forming in a square, fought the Indians with courage. When the sun arose the men who were mounted made a charge which dispersed the enemy. Harrison found the Prophet's town deserted the next day and burnt it.

At this time Henry Clay, of Kentucky, and John Calhoun, of South Carolina, both young and ambitious men, stood at the head of the southern party who desired to have war with England. New England was anxious for a fleet, if such a war was to be undertaken, but the southern faction consisted of the slave-holding element, and were not willing to unite with New England in any measure, or even to accept her advice. The plan was to invade Canada by the enlargement of the regular army and the help of the militia. Madison desired peace, but as another election day rapidly neared, he was informed that unless he declared for war he would not be renominated as a candidate for the presidency. He was a man who had long been overshadowed by others, and his ambition now was supreme. He declared war against England June 18, 1812.

A protest against the war was drawn up by Joshua Quincy, of Massachusetts, and signed by thirty-eight members of the House. They denounced the war as a pretext to give aid to Napoleon against England, and showed how unprepared the nation was, without either army or navy, to begin a contest with the strongest nation in the world, and they pointed out to their constituents the fact that the declaration of war was a party measure and that it was dangerous to the Union in the extreme. The people also expressed extreme disapprobation; ministers made it the subject of sermons; it occupied the pens of the pamphleteers and was the subject most discussed in newspapers. Against the Federalists, who took this view of the matter, the Democrats, who constituted the war party, were greatly incensed. On June 22, 1812, a mob sacked the office of the *Federal Republican*, in Baltimore, and followed it up by doing great damage to several houses belonging to Federalists and to vessels in the harbor. Within a month the editor of the *Federal Republican*, Alexander Hanson, once more issued his sheet. The office was again attacked, but Hanson had taken means for defending his property and fired upon the mob, killing one and wounding several. When the militia was called out, instead of arresting the rioters, they arrested Hanson and his party and lodged them in jail, where they were again attacked by the mob, who killed, in the

most wanton manner, General Lingen, and lamed General Henry Lee for life. The ringleaders of the mob were tried, but acquitted. The regular army at this time numbered six thousand men. To these were added fifty thousand volunteers and one hundred thousand militiamen, and Henry Dearborn, of Massachusetts, was given the command. General William Hull, the Governor of Michigan, was appointed commander in the West and was ordered to be in readiness to invade Canada in the event of war. His intimate acquaintance with the country made him well aware of the danger which was run by taking a warlike attitude in a territory where there were so many Indians. But he was not able to impress upon the government all of the needs and conditions, and marched from Ohio with about two thousand men, chiefly militia, who were especially uncontrollable and insubordinate. When the declaration of war reached him, he promptly crossed the Detroit river, a few miles below Detroit, for the purpose of taking Fort Malden. He issued a proclamation promising protection to the inhabitants, but stating that no quarter would be given to those who were fighting in company with the Indians. The news of the declaration of war reached the Canadian commanders before it did Hull, and the first movement was upon the part of the English who took the fort at Michilimackinac by surprise and compelled its surrender. The Indians, who were always ambitious to be on the strongest side, immediately joined the English. This filled Hull with great apprehensions, and he sent to Captain Nathan Heald, who was in command of Fort Dearborn, where Chicago now stands, to hasten and join him at Detroit. The Indians about Chicago were supposed to be friendly, but their actions were perplexing, and Heald was anxious about the outcome. He promised the Indians the property in the fort which he could not take away, and in the night he destroyed the firearms, gunpowder and liquor, which was the articles for which they were most eager. On the morning of August 15th, he set out with fifty soldiers and the families of the village. The party followed the road by the shore of the lake which was guarded by a low range of sand hills, behind which the disappointed Indians were crouched. At a point near the southern extremity of what is now the Lake Front Park, the Indians rushed upon them with their war cry. In the conflict which followed, the women fought with the men, but they were no match for the savages, and such as survived after a short but deadly struggle surrendered. Of these, all the wounded were scalped, for it was known that the British Colonel Proctor, at Malden, had offered a high price for American scalps. The children, twelve of

them in all, had been put together in one wagon, in the futile hope that the Indians might spare them, but the little ones were all tomahawked by one Indian. The massacre was attended by peculiar horrors, which are too terrible to bear description.

At about the same time Hull sent out Thomas B. Van Horne to guard a supply train. Horne's detachment met a force of English and Indians at Brownstown, and were defeated with dreadful slaughter. Another expedition, under Lieutenant-Colonel James Miller, was sent to open communication with the base of supplies at Racine river. These were caught in an Indian ambush, but after a valiant fight for two hours succeeded in routing the savages and returned to their boats. They left fifty of their comrades dead behind them, but had the satisfaction of knowing that twice that number of Indians had been killed. Hull retreated to Detroit, where, with the eight hundred and fifty men still left him, he made arrangements for defense. The rest of his men had been sent on distant expeditions. On the 16th of August General Isaac Brock, the English commander, crossed the Detroit river with over two thousand regulars and Indians, and demanded the surrender of the city. When Brock demanded surrender he had said that he could not restrain his allies, the Indians, from rapine and murder, in case the place should be carried by assault. Hull dared not rely upon his insubordinate militia for any desperate fighting, and as he had learned that the officers had formed a conspiracy to take away his command from him, he decided to surrender. He knew that if he defended the place and his enemies succeeded in defeating him, the fate of the women and children would be terrible. Among them was a part of his own family, and he had not the courage to run the risk. He surrendered without making an effort to fight, and for this was counted a traitor, tried by court-martial and condemned to be shot. But Madison, remembering that he had served through the Revolution with devotion, and feeling that the neglect of the government had much to do with the case, pardoned him.

FOR FURTHER READING

HISTORY—Drake's "Life of Tecumseh and the Prophet."

FICTION—Richardson's "Hardscrabble."

Richardson's "Waumaugee."

Mrs. Kenzie's "Waubun."

POETRY—C. H. Colton's "Tecumseh."

CHAPTER LXXV.

“Never Give Up the Ship.”

WAR OF 1812—THE NIAGARA CAMPAIGN—THE BATTLE OF QUEENSTOWN—NAVAL OPERATIONS—THE SIX TRIUMPHS OF THE AMERICANS—AFFAIRS IN THE WEST—THE CONFLICT ON THE LAKES—PERRY'S VICTORY.



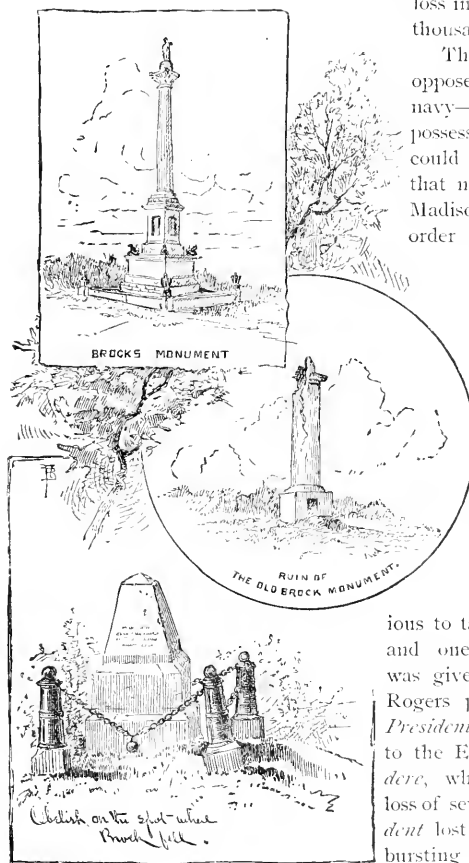
GENERAL STEPHEN VAN RENSSELAER had been given command on the Niagara frontier, with orders to capture the heights of Queenstown. On the morning of October 13, 1812, he sent two small columns across the river. Some of the men succeeded in landing, but several of the boats lost their way. The regulars charged up a hill and took position on a plateau, waiting here for the attack of the enemy. The American force was worsted and obliged to retreat to the beach. They were here reinforced, and ordered to scale the heights, which they did, capturing a battery at the top of the slope. General Brock had heard of the conflict, and had ridden at full speed from Fort Dodge. Upon his appearance on the field the English regained courage, and made an effort to recover their battery. They drove the Americans to the very verge of the precipice. The American commander realized that a desperate defence must be made, and he cheered on his men to such a fierce assault that the English broke and fled down the slope. General Brock made a brave effort to reorganize the English, but fell, mortally wounded. Three other officers in turn took up his command, but all fell, and a retreat was ordered. Lieutenant-colonel Winfield Scott now reinforced the Americans, and assumed command on the heights. He had expected that the militia would follow him, but the militia refused to be taken out of their State, and cautiously remained where they were. The British were quick to take advantage of Scott's unprotected

position, and charged upon him with a heavy force. He repelled them twice with the bayonet, and upon the third charge, in which the English were reinforced, the Americans were driven to the precipice, and let themselves down from ledge to ledge, hanging by bushes and roots till they reached the water. The boats were not here to receive them, and they were forced to surrender, making the entire American

loss in this action about one thousand.

The war party were much opposed to the use of the navy—if the few gunboats possessed by the Americans could be distinguished by that name—but, at length, Madison was persuaded to order out the vessels, such as they were. The British navy at this time had more than one thousand vessels, manned by one hundred and forty-four thousand sailors. The United States had twenty large war vessels and a few gunboats, together carrying about three hundred guns. The navy itself was anx-

ious to take part in the war, and one hour after consent was given Commodore John Rogers put to sea in the *President*, and gave chase to the English frigate *Belvidere*, which escaped with a loss of seven men. The *President* lost sixteen men by the bursting of a gun, and six



from the fire of the enemy. Rogers went on across the Atlantic, capturing an English privateer and seven merchantmen, and retaking an American prize. At the same time an English squadron off New York captured several merchantmen and the man-of-war *Nautilus*.

Thus began the wars upon the seas. After this there were numerous engagements, one of the most notable of which was the victory of the frigate *Constitution*, under Captain Isaac Hull. He fought the British frigate *Guerrière*. The vessels opened broadsides upon each other at close range, and finally grappled, both parties trying to board. But the sea was rough and the musketry fire unceasing, and they were obliged to give this up. The *Guerrière* lost her mainmast and foremast, and the *Constitution* freed herself, and got into a position where she could take her antagonist fore and aft. The *Guerrière*, therefore, struck. The Americans lost but fourteen men and the British seventy-nine, losing their ship into the bargain, for in the morning it was found necessary to blow her up, as she was sinking. It was said that the victory to the Americans came through superior gun practice, which was not a little astonishing to the English, who had especially prided themselves upon proficiency in that direction. The Americans had placed sights upon their guns and could, therefore, fire with great accuracy. The English, as yet, had not adopted this plan. When Captain Hull landed in Boston he was met with a public welcome. Triumphant arches had been raised, the streets decorated, and he and his officers were entertained at a public dinner. In New York and Philadelphia he met with a like recognition of his services, and Congress voted him a gold medal, and his crew fifty thousand dollars. At the beginning of autumn, in the conflict between the *Wasp*, of America, and the *Frolic*, of England, the vessels grappled and the Americans sprang on the deck of the *Frolic* and compelled surrender. The *Frolic* carried a large crew, of which only twenty were unhurt. A few weeks later, Commodore Stephen Decatur captured a packet with a large amount of specie, and afterwards fell in with the frigate *Macedonia* with which he fought two hours. The *Macedonia* struck, and owned to a loss of one hundred and four men. Decatur lost but twelve. Captain Bainbridge fell in with the British frigate *Java*, off the coast of South America, and after a fight of two hours the *Java* struck, having lost every spar and one hundred and twenty men. Bainbridge's frigate, the *Constitution*, lost but thirty-four men. It was this engagement which gave to the *Constitution* the title of "Old Ironsides." England was amazed, that in the six encounters at sea the enemy should have

been successful in every one. The war party of America was almost amazed at the success of the navy, since it had steadily objected to its use. But the capture of three hundred British merchantmen which were now kept in American ports, and the presence of the three thousand prisoners belonging to them, was a matter which could not be belittled.

Early in the winter of 1812, a new army, numbering about ten thousand, drawn from the Western States, was put under command of William Henry Harrison, for the purpose of recovering the territory lost by Hull's surrender of Detroit. An advance detachment at that time occupying Monroe, Michigan, was attacked on January 22d by fifteen hundred British and Indians, under Colonel Henry Proctor. The Americans fought behind fences, but these were poor shields against the British artillery. General Winchester was captured, and from what he saw in the enemy's lines, feared that wholesale slaughter would ensue unless the Americans surrendered. He found means to send word to that effect, and the Americans surrendered, under Proctor's promise of protection against the Indians. This promise was broken, and the Indians not only killed all the prisoners, but tortured them cruelly. Harrison now hastened to build Fort Meigs, at the rapids of the Maumee river, and Proctor besieged this work in April, threatening, as usual, that if the place was carried by assault the men would be massacred. The Americans succeeded in spiking the enemy's batteries, and Proctor was forced to raise the siege. A little later, Tecumseh, the Indian chief, joined Proctor, and their force, five thousand strong, attacked Fort Stevenson, on the Sandusky, where Fremont now stands. The garrison numbered but one hundred and sixty men and possessed but one gun. When Major George Croghan received the summons to surrender or be massacred, he replied that when the fort was taken there would be no men left to kill. After bombarding the fort without effect for a long time from their gunboats and with the field artillery, the British advanced to the attack on two sides at the same moment. Croghan placed his single gun where it would sweep the ditch. He loaded it to the muzzle, and waited till the attacking party leaped over the ditch. In the discharge it swept down nearly every man. A second column met with a like fate and the party retreated.

The attention of the nation was turned more particularly for a time to the lakes, where both parties were struggling hard for ascendancy. Isaac Chauncey was the American commodore, and Sir James Yeo the British admiral. Both countries had expended much money and pains

upon the fitting out of fleets, and here it was felt the war would be largely decided. In April, 1813, Commodore Chauncey's fleet carried General Dearborn and fifteen hundred men from Sackett's Harbor, and landed them two miles west of what is now Toronto. At that time it was called York, and was the capital of Upper Canada. The expedition had for its purpose the capture of a large ship then building at the docks, the capture of which Chauncey thought necessary to his success. But the ship was afloat before Chauncey and his fleet reached York, and nothing came of the movement. When the Americans had landed, under protection of a well-armed schooner, the body of English and Indians, who had withstood them, fell back behind some fortifications. They were closely followed by the Americans, who ordered that a halt should be made till the artillery had time to come up. While they were waiting, a magazine near the works, containing one hundred barrels of powder, exploded, killing or wounding two hundred Americans. But they rallied and pressed forward into the town, and during the four days which they remained, fired the government buildings. In the legislative chamber they found a human scalp hanging as a trophy, or a reminder of their Indian allies, and this was sent, with the speaker's mace and a British standard, to Washington. Chauncey now returned to Sackett's Harbor, landing Dearborn and his force near the mouth of the Niagara river. Here, a month later, Chauncey rejoined them and Fort George was taken. At this time Yeo, the English admiral, with General Prevost, was on his way to Sackett's Harbor, which had been left almost without defense at the time that Dearborn was in York. The English attacked the town in front, while their Indian allies fought at the rear. The American militia fled after the first fire, but the regulars and volunteers fought until they were forced to take refuge in the log barracks. Their commander ordered them to pretend to march for the boats, and General Prevost, fearing that his escape would be cut off, ordered a retreat leaving two hundred and sixty dead and wounded behind him. The loss among the Americans was as severe in proportion to their numbers, and their stores, which were worth half a million dollars, were unfortunately burned. Several other mishaps overtook the Americans on the Niagara frontier, and closed the campaign for the summer with as melancholy a record of defeat as could well be imagined.

On Lake Erie, however, there was an exploit which was most successful for the Americans. Here a squadron was commanded by Captain Oliver Hazard Perry. By August he was afloat with ten vessels,

carrying fifty-five guns, in vigorous search of the British squadron of six vessels, which bore sixty-five guns and was commanded by Captain Barclay. These forces did not meet till the middle of September. The English squadron drew up in line of battle, but the American line was straggling, and one of the American vessels was soon reduced to a wreck and obliged to drop out of action. Perry left her, took a small boat, and in the midst of a fierce storm of bullets reached the *Niagara*. He sailed this vessel straight through the British lines, delivering broadsides on both sides as he went. Then getting across the bows of the English vessels he raked two or three of them while his smaller craft poured in grape and canister. Perry told the outcome of the day's work in his brief despatch to General Harrison: "We have met the enemy and they are ours—two ships, two brigs, one schooner and one sloop."

Harrison was transported by Perry's fleet to the Canadian shore of the Detroit river and besieged Fort Malden. The English general set fire to the place and retreated, and Harrison pursued him by land while Perry carried his baggage and supplies by water. On the 5th of October Proctor turned about and faced his pursuers, choosing a position where he could plant his guns in a highway, and be protected on each side by marshes. Tecumseh was with Proctor, and the Indians and British were arrayed for the defence of the highway. Harrison placed his mounted infantry in the front of the ranks, and faced the Indians who were in the marsh. The horsemen moved slowly when the bugle gave them the signal, but increased their pace till they dashed with terrible force through the enemy, killing, capturing or scattering the English regulars. Proctor was pursued by a dozen well-mounted men, but escaped. Tecumseh was killed and the Indians fled. The Americans had regained the territory of Michigan, and Harrison and his troops returned to Buffalo. This decisive conflict was known as the battle of the Thames. Hull, and then Dearborn, had then been retired with their military reputations shattered, and General Wilkinson was now put in charge of the northern forces, which consisted of Harrison's force at Buffalo, the force at Fort George, that at Sackett's Harbor, and the right wing of the Vermont frontier, under Wade Hampton, these numbering altogether about twelve thousand men. Wilkinson was in poor health, and was much more interested in a whisky bottle than in a campaign, and therefore left his command largely to inferior officers. It was the plan for him to move down the St. Lawrence with a part of the men, while Hampton was to advance overland, make a junction

with him and the whole army was to move upon Montreal. To make the road easy, Chauncey drove Yeo into port and kept him there. But notwithstanding this, the Americans met with many disasters. The weather was bad, the boats poor, and some were driven ashore, while others went to the bottom, causing the delay of the whole flotilla until they could be replaced. At Williamsburg, they encountered troops to the number of seventeen hundred. A sharp battle followed, from which both parties retired in good order with a loss which was similar upon both sides. The other general, Wade Hampton, was as inefficient as Wilkinson, and he sent word that he could not make the junction agreed upon. Upon receiving this news Wilkinson willingly went into winter quarters. Hampton, with five thousand men, had been successfully checked by the English Lieutenant-Colonel de Dalaberry, who had a force of four or five hundred. In December General Drummond appeared between Lakes Ontario and Erie, and the Americans holding Fort George, which had been so expensively gained the summer before, fled at his approach, taking refuge in Fort Niagara and burning Newark as they went. The enemy followed them and captured Fort Niagara without meeting with any respectable resistance. They killed eighty of the garrison, including the men in the hospital. A number of towns were destroyed, and all the farming region laid waste, many of the inhabitants being put to death.

FOR FURTHER READING:

FICTION—Kirkland's "Zury."

W. C. Iron's "The Double Hero."

POETRY—J. G. Percival's "Perry's Victory on Lake Erie."

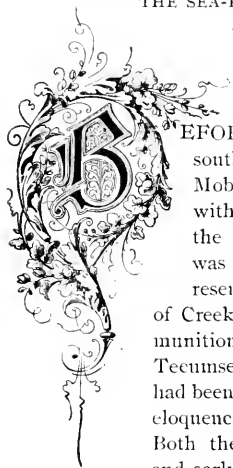
Oliver W. Holmes' "Old Ironsides."

Levi Bishop's "Battle of the River Raisin."

CHAPTER LXXVI.

"Blue Lights."

THE WAR WITH THE CREEKS—JACKSON'S CAMPAIGN—AFFAIRS ON
THE SEA-BOARD—"YANKEE" STRATEGY—
THE TREATY OF PEACE.



BEFORE Wilkinson had been removed from the southern to the northern departments, he had taken Mobile away from the Spaniards. This he did without resistance. It was done in accordance with the claim that the eastern boundary of Louisiana was the Perdido river. Spain denied this, and resented the seizure of Mobile. The powerful tribe of Creek Indians were given supplies of arms and ammunition at Pensacola and incited against the Americans. Tecumseh, who had since met with a warrior's death, had been sent south to lash the Creeks by his resentful eloquence into a still more warlike frame of mind. Both the English and the Spaniards urged them on, and early in 1813 they began their hostilities. In the first encounter they were defeated, but in the second one, at Fort Mimms, a thousand of them, under the command of a noted half-breed, William Weathersford, besieged a stockade in which the inhabitants of the neighborhood had taken refuge. The men and women fought together here for many hours, and large numbers of the Indians were killed, but the buildings were finally set on fire, and the Indians massacred the people as usual, not even sparing the children. Only twelve of the garrison escaped. The rest were murdered with horrible tortures.

The Southwestern States were prompt to punish these atrocities. The legislature of Tennessee appropriated three hundred thousand dollars for the campaign, and placed Andrew Jackson at the head of five thousand men. These men were composed largely of Western

pioneers, well mounted, used to forest fighting, and capable of great endurance. Among them were Sam Houston and Davy Crockett, men which every American schoolboy counts among his heroes. Jackson built Fort Deposit, on the Tennessee, as a depot for supplies, and foraged the country thoroughly, burning every Indian village in his way. The Indians were first met at the little village which occupied the site of the present Jacksonville. The American detachment consisted of one thousand mounted men, who gave the Indians no quarter, killing every one of them, and taking the squaws and children prisoners. In a later encounter they killed three hundred out of one thousand of the enemy. At this time a force of about fifteen hundred came from Georgia, while from the West came another force, so that the Creeks had enemies upon three sides of them. The Western men, under General F. S. Claiborne, discovered a town of refuge on the Alabama. This was built on holy ground, and no path led to it. In it were the women, children and the prophets. When Claiborne broke in upon their religious rites, he found captives bound to stakes ready to be burned. Claiborne sacked and burned the town. By this time winter had closed in, and the short enlistments of the men were expiring, and therefore the operations for the year were closed.

Along the sea-board, America had met with continued disasters through the year of 1813. Early in the spring a blockade had been declared from Montauk Point, on the eastern extremity of Long Island, to the mouth of the Mississippi. It was true that the British squadron was not sufficient to guard such a vast extent of coast, but it was well able to seriously interfere with commerce, and harass the people of the towns. Admiral Cockburn was especially dreaded for his cruelties. Along the shores of Delaware, Maryland, Virginia and North Carolina, he waged an unsoldierly warfare upon the quiet people of the villages and farms. His brutal sailors, half intoxicated, were allowed to overrun the country, robbing, burning, and committing every outrage which their ungoverned viciousness prompted. Cockburn's men enticed away slaves and sold them in the West Indies. But their destruction and appropriation of property were the least of their offences.

In the course of the year Congress authorized the building of four ships of the line, six frigates, six sloops of war, and as many vessels as might be necessary for operation on the lakes. Besides these, a large number of privateers were commissioned, and did some excellent service. One of the most notable of the engagements between privateers was between the *Shannon* and the *Chesapeake*. This happened before

Perry's victory on Lake Erie, and, indeed, the vessel which Perry fought in was the *Lawrence*, named after the gallant commander of the *Chesapeake*, and on Perry's flag were the last words of Captain Lawrence, "Don't give up the ship." The fight between the *Shannon* and the *Chesapeake* took place in Boston Bay, and the American vessel was so injured that she became unmanageable. The enemy swarmed upon the decks and poured a terrible fire down the hatchways, and after an engagement of fifteen minutes the ship was theirs, and though the fight had been so brief, the *Chesapeake* had forty-eight killed and nearly one hundred wounded, and the *Shannon* twenty-three killed and over fifty wounded. Another naval engagement with a pathetic ending was that of the brig *Enterprise*, and the English brig *Boxer*. The *Boxer* surrendered after a fight of three-quarters of an hour, off the coast of Maine. Both captains were killed and buried side by side in Portland. There is an exciting little story told of the fishing smack *Yankee*, which had forty well-armed men concealed below, but showed on deck only three men, a calf, a sheep, and a goose. After sailing out of New York she met with a British sloop of war, the *Eagle*, which was in want of provisions, and as the Yankees drew along side, her forty men sprang on board the sloop of war, killed a number of the crew, drove the rest below, and took possession, sailing up the bay with their prize. Thousands cheered them from the battery, where they were celebrating the anniversary of American independence. Perhaps it is better to leave untold histories like that of the American brig *Argus*, which captured an English merchantman laden with wine, to which the crew were allowed to help themselves till they were all drunk. They then set the prize on fire, and by this brilliant light they were seen by the English brig *Palatine*, which bore down upon the *Argus* and captured her. One disaster which greatly disheartened the people was the defeat of Decatur, whose squadron was driven into New London and kept there by the larger force of the blockaders, so that none of these ships got to sea again while the war lasted. The Connecticut militia gathered upon the shores in such numbers that it was impossible for the English to capture them. But Decatur and his officers fretted under the idleness and made more than one attempt to break through the line of the enemy's ships. When they failed in these attempts they complained that there were traitors on shore, who warned the ships outside of their movements by burning blue lights. This the people of Connecticut stoutly denied, but as they belonged to the party which was opposed to the war, they were not believed,

although their militia stood staunchly by Decatur's fleet week in and week out. It is possible, and even probable, that upon occasions these blue lights were burned by some traitor on shore, but it was the grossest injustice to accuse the loyal people of Connecticut of this. It was a time, however, of great political hatred, and the Federalists were always afterward called the "Blue Lights."

As the year 1814 opened, the outlook for American success was dark. Napoleon's power had been broken, and an act was passed to increase the regular army to sixty-six thousand men. It was evident that if England chose, she could overrun the country with veteran troops. But negotiations for peace now began. It was decided that these should be conducted at Gottenburg. John Quincy Adams, James A. Bayard, Henry Clay, Jonathan Russell and Albert Gallatin were appointed commissioners and instructed to insist that in the future there should be no search or impressment by English naval commanders upon American vessels, but to offer to exclude British seamen from American vessels and to surrender deserters. This was practically yielding up the cause for which the war had been fought, for had this arrangement been made at the outset there could have been little excuse for war. While these matters were under slow consideration, preparations for the campaign of the coming year, 1814, were continued.

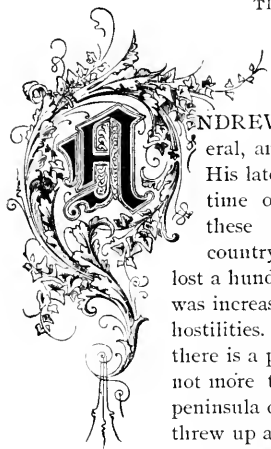
FOR FURTHER READING:

BIOGRAPHY—Abbott's "Life and Adventures of Davy Crockett."
"Life of Sam Houston."

CHAPTER LXXVII.

A Country Without a Capital.

JACKSON'S CAMPAIGN AMONG THE CREEKS—DISCOURAGEMENTS ON
THE NORTHERN FRONTIER—THE BATTLE OF LUNDY'S
LANE—THE WAR ON THE SEA-COAST FOR 1814—
THE CAPTURE AND DESTRUCTION OF THE
CITY OF WASHINGTON—VICISSITUDES
AT THE SOUTH—THE BAT-
TLE OF NEW OR-
LEANS.

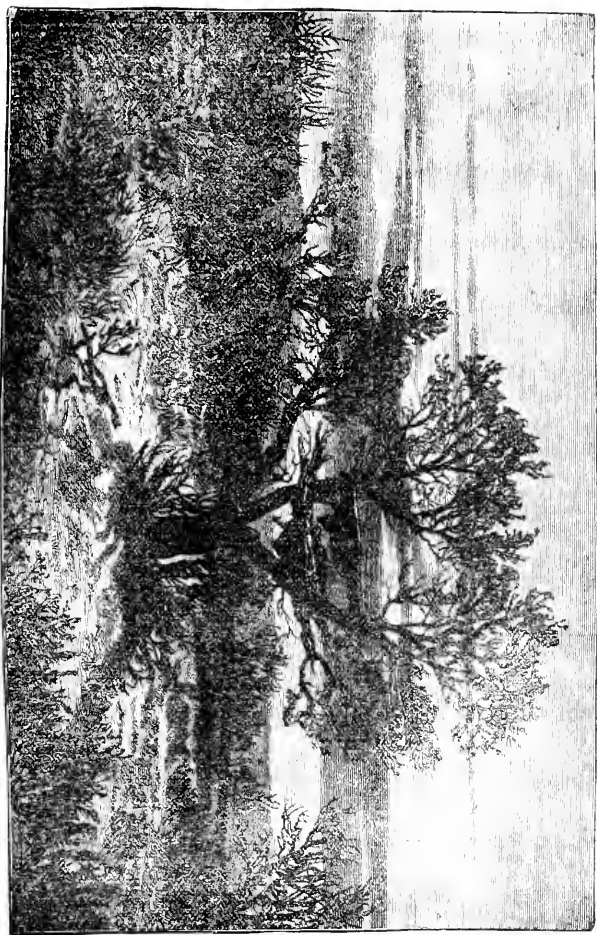


ANDREW JACKSON had been made Major-General, and commanded nine hundred raw recruits. His late army had gone home at the end of their time of service, in spite of his prayers. With these inexperienced men he marched into the country of the Creeks, fought two battles, and lost a hundred soldiers. Shortly after this, his army was increased to five thousand men, and he renewed hostilities. At Horseshoe Bend, in the Tallapoosa, there is a peninsula of one hundred acres, with a neck not more than five hundred feet wide. Upon this peninsula one thousand Creek warriors encamped, and threw up a rude breastwork across the neck. Jackson marched with nearly three thousand men against this defence, sending a detachment of mounted men and friendly Indians to the enemy's rear. After cannonading without effect upon the breastwork for two hours, Jackson saw smoke arising in the rear and knew that his detachment had reached the Indian village and fired it. He then ordered his men to storm the works, and they fought hand-to-hand with their enemies through the loop-holes for a while, then leaped the defence, and charged with the bayonet. It was seldom that an Indian asked for quarter. His idea of warfare was to

kill or be killed, and he did not complain when luck was against him. The Americans shot down the Indians as they ran to hide themselves in the thickets, or to swim the stream, and thus for a time the Creeks were checked.

Not so encouraging was the reopening of affairs in the North. Wilkinson's military career was ended in the beginning of the year by two military disasters. The Secretary of War still wished to invade Canada by the river St. Lawrence, and to do this, proposed to take Kingston. To conceal this movement and to make sure that no enemy was left in the rear, Major-General Brown was ordered to commence operations on the peninsula between Erie and Ontario. On July 2d he compelled the surrender of Fort Erie. On the 5th he was unexpectedly forced into a battle, in which the British retreated, and the Indians, disgusted at their defeat, all deserted them. Brown felt it to be safe, after this success, to move upon Kingston along the lake shore, and asked for the co-operation of Chauncey's fleet, assuring that admiral that Canada could now be taken without difficulty. But this co-operation Chauncey did not give him, and Brown was forced to turn back, upon learning that the English general, Riall, with large reinforcements, was at Queenstown. Winfield Scott, now a brigadier-general, was sent forward with a corps of observation, and as his troops came into an open space looking upon Lundy's Lane, nearly opposite Niagara Falls, they were met by the entire British force drawn up in line of battle. Scott at once sent detachments to turn the wing of the enemy and succeeded in capturing a large number of prisoners. General Brown was soon on the ground with reinforcements, and he saw that the great strength of the British lay in their centers, where they had seven guns planted upon a low hill. Colonel James Miller was ordered to take this battery, and modestly answering, "I will try, sir," he put his men in motion and ordered them to move cautiously through the dusk—for it was after sunset. The men crept along the ground up to a fence, and when their commander whispered the order, they shot every man at the guns, and rushed forward in the face of a sharp fire and captured them. The British made two determined efforts to retake the battery but failed, and as the darkness deepened they retired. The battle of Lundy's Lane was not a decisive one, but it was one of the hardest ever fought. Of the two thousand Americans engaged, seven hundred and forty-three were killed or wounded, and of the four thousand British, eight hundred and seventy-eight. General Winfield Scott was so severely wounded that he could not serve during the rest of the

INDIAN SERIAL IN THE TREE-TOP.



war, and General Brown for some time was obliged to leave the command in other hands. In the meantime General Edward Gaines was given command of the American troops, and conducted a defense

against a midnight assault, on August 10th, with great success, the English losing nearly a thousand men.

The Americans were besieged in Fort Erie and the English brought their parallels so close that showers of hot shot were thrown into the fort. One of these disabled General Gaines, and Brown, though still far from well, assumed command. On December 17th, a sudden sortie with two thousand men was made by the Americans, overwhelming the besiegers, dismounting the guns and destroying the works. In this the Americans lost five hundred men and the British nine hundred. The siege was then abandoned, and in October the Americans destroyed Fort Erie and returned to their own shore.

In spite of these successes the Americans had gained but little. Two thousand of their men had been buried on Canadian soil. It had been proved that the Americans had not quite forgotten how to fight, but nothing had been gained which was of permanent value to the country. As the summer closed, both parties stood on the defensive on their own side of the border. Sir George Prevost made an attempt to invade New York as far as Crown Point, on the old path over which so many warlike expeditions had moved, but this attempt was unsuccessful, and Prevost abandoned his plan.

On the sea-coast the war had been one signal disaster. The blockading squadron was increased and the American vessels kept well in shore, while depredations upon the coast were frequent and vicious. The valley of the Penobscot was seized as a conquered province, being invaded by General Pilkington, who met with no defense except that which a half-armed and thoroughly frightened militia could give.

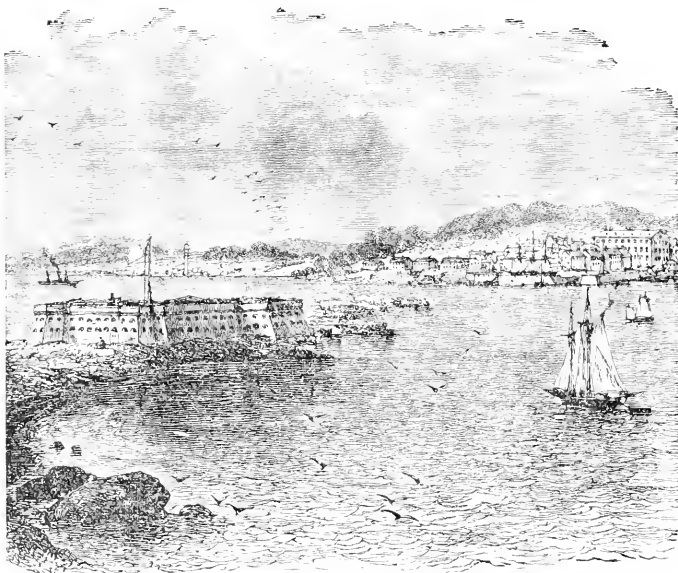
In August, the English fleet appeared off Stonington, Connecticut, and gave the inhabitants one hour to remove the women and children. The little village was then bombarded steadily for three days, and into it was thrown fifty tons of iron and solid shot, bombshells, etc. There were only about a score of men to defend the town, and these mounted three old guns and handled them so well that they kept the enemy from landing, and inflicted a loss upon them of seventy men killed or wounded. Seven of the defendants were wounded, but none killed.

Shortly after this, occurred that episode of which the Americans are perhaps more ashamed than of anything else in their national history. In August of 1814 General Ross, with thirty-five hundred men, the finest regiments of Wellington's army, appeared in the Chesapeake and was here reinforced by one thousand marines from Cockburn's blockading squadron. The whole force was landed about forty miles below

Washington. President Madison and the Senate had been warned again and again of the purpose of Ross' expedition, but the war party refused to believe or listen, and when the English appeared upon the coast, but slight defense was possible. Brigadier-General William Winder had been placed in command of five hundred regulars, a few weeks before, with the assurance that two thousand militia would respond to his orders. But no effort was made to put this little force in condition to take the field. When Ross made his undisputed arrival, he could hardly believe that the way had thus been left open to him. He moved on cautiously, and at length met Winder, whose militia, at the firing of the first English rockets, fled to Washington. The President and his Cabinet had their personal safety more at heart than any other matter, and set the example by getting away with as much haste as possible. The only honest defense which the British met with was from a small band of seamen and marines, commanded by Commodore Barney and Captain Miller. When these men, six hundred in number, were obliged to retreat, they left six hundred dead Englishmen behind them to show that every man had done his duty. As the British entered Washington the Americans set fire to their own navy yard, forgetting that the English could do no worse should they take it. The invaders burned every public office in Washington except the patent office, which was spared because of the assurance that it contained nothing but private property and models of the arts, which were of general use to the world. Admiral Cockburn, leaping into the speaker's chair as his followers entered the halls of Congress, cried out: "Shall this harbor of Yankee democracy be burned? All for it say, aye." The public libraries were also burned, and the next night the invaders crept quietly away, expecting to be severely punished for their depredations—a suspicion which was a compliment to the Americans not deserved by them.

The British were almost as bewildered as gratified by a success so extraordinary, and they hastened to send an expedition against Baltimore. The citizens of that city were warned in time, and put up fortifications, calling out all of the available troops to repel the invasion. When Ross landed at the head of his advance, he was picked off by a sharpshooter and carried to his boat, where he died in a few minutes. The three thousand volunteers, under General John Sticker, withstood the enemy for three hours, and then fell back upon the intrenchments. The following day they were reinforced, and the British quietly retreated in the night. In the meanwhile, sixteen vessels moved up the bay and opened fire upon the defences of Baltimore. For twenty-four hours

they poured a continuous stream of rockets and shells into the forts, and at night sent a strong force to attack them in the rear. But this was discovered and dispersed by a fire of red-hot shot, and the fleet retired. There were four notable battles on the ocean during the year, in three of which the Americans were successful. These only showed, by contrast, how disgraceful was the fight upon shore. The effort to make a conquest of Canada was as far from accomplishment as at the beginning. The Federalists were not slow to point out the weak-



THE FORT AT PENSACOLA

ness of the Administration, and to dilate upon the great injury which it was doing to the country, and to the commercial States in particular. The cost of the war was but a small item compared with the loss which the people of New England sustained from the crushing of their trade. There were serious thoughts of forming a Northern Confederacy, not for the purpose of disbanding the Union, but that it might not be tyrannized over by a faction whose policy was so disastrous. It was questioned by great statesmen whether the Union had not been a failure,

and a convention, having representatives from all the Northern States, met at Hartford, for the purpose of considering the new Constitution, or of making amendments to the old one which should prevent such evils as they were then suffering from. Massachusetts was particularly anxious that the legislative powers of the people should rest upon a different basis, and that the number of representatives should depend upon the population, but nothing definite was done at the convention.

In the meantime, the British force had taken possession of the Spanish town of Pensacola, in Florida, and used it as a station to fit out expeditions against Mobile and New Orleans. Here they equipped the Indians for war, and attempted to drill them. Jackson received fresh troops from Tennessee and Kentucky, and marched southward to meet this new invasion. The British attacked Fort Bowyer, at Mobile, in September, but were repulsed. They blew up the fort at Pensacola in November, when they heard that Jackson was approaching, and left him to take undisputed possession of the town.

Jackson now hastened to New Orleans and made preparations to defend that port, the loss of which would give the English the command of the Mississippi. Jackson was in his element, for he was never better pleased than when encountering difficulties. He made up his lack of men by enrolling convicts, appealing to the free negroes and calling out the militia. He proclaimed martial law through the city, built intrenchments, and considered every possibility and exigency which might arise. The British landed twenty-four hundred men nine miles below the city, and Jackson went down to meet them with about two thousand men. It was on the 23d of December, when the days were short, and night was closing before he reached the enemy, so that the attack had to be made after dark. The armies became intermingled and the fights were largely hand-to-hand. When the Americans withdrew to their fortifications, after two hours of fighting, each side had lost more than two hundred men. Almost immediately after the action the British troops received large reinforcements, and among them was General Sir Edward Pakenham, brother-in-law to the Duke of Wellington, who was to take the chief command. The situation of his armies seemed to him unfortunate. They were on a narrow strip of low land, bounded on one side by a broad river and on the other by a morass. The enemy in front, of unknown numbers, were behind fortifications. Two American vessels in the river harassed the camp day and night, and the weather was causing sickness among the men. Pakenham brought some guns across the peninsula, destroyed one

American vessel with hot-shot and drove the other up stream. He then erected bastions of hogsheds of sugar, behind which he mounted thirty guns, and opened the year 1815 with this warlike action. Jackson, on his part, used cotton bales for his bastion, and before these were knocked out of place and set on fire, had constructed good earthworks a mile and a half in the rear. Both sides were reinforced during the week that followed, and both generals laid excellent plans of procedure.

On the 8th of January the English opened an attack, advancing in two columns, and preceded by regiments bearing ladders and fascines. Between them marched a thousand Highlanders, to support an attack on both wings. But Jackson's men were those of the West and South, who, as riflemen, have never been excelled, and their aim was unerring. The artillery was handled with precision, and in the first discharge from the thirty-two-pounder, the entire van of one of the British columns was swept away. In attempting to reform his men, Pakenham was killed, two other generals were seriously wounded, and the commander of the Highland regiment was shot dead. In twenty-five minutes the action was over, and the British found that they had lost seven hundred killed, fourteen hundred wounded and five hundred prisoners, while the American loss was but seventeen. Such a brilliant success as this might well have raised the confidence of the American people, but at this time news was received that peace had been concluded at Ghent, on the 24th of December, two weeks before the battle of New Orleans.

FOR FURTHER READING:

BIOGRAPHY—Parton's "Life of Jackson."

FICTION—Glegg's "The Subaltern."

J. H. Ingraham's "Lafitte."

G. W. Cable's "Grandissimes."

G. W. Cable's "Old Creole Days."

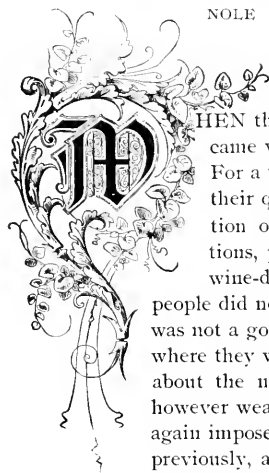
G. C. Eggleston's "Captain Dain."

FOLIO — Francis Scott Key's "The Star-Spangled Banner."

CHAPTER LXXVIII.

A Transient Amiability.

THE ERA OF GOOD FEELING—WAR WITH ALGIERS—FINANCIAL CONDITION OF THE COUNTRY—THE FIRST SEMI-NOLE WAR—THE MISSOURI COMPROMISE.



WHEN the Treaty of Peace was at last ratified, there came what is known as "the era of good feeling." For a time the political parties were glad to forget their quarrels and rejoice together over the restoration of peace. Everywhere there were celebrations, public dinners, congratulatory speeches and wine-drinking. In the general rejoicing, the people did not much concern themselves that the treaty was not a good one, and that it left matters practically where they were before the war. Those who thought about the matter doubtless consoled themselves that, however weak the treaty was, England would not soon again impose upon American vessels as she had done previously, and that she would stand in wholesome fear of the resistance with which any presumptuous step on

her part would be met.

There was one other question of foreign difficulty to be settled, and that was with Algiers. The Dey of Algiers was dissatisfied with the measure of the usual tribute. He declared war against the United States and renewed his depredations upon American commerce. Early in the spring of 1815, Decatur, his old enemy, was sent with a squadron of nine vessels to the Mediterranean. In June, he captured an Algerian frigate and a brig of twenty-two guns. He then anchored his whole squadron in the harbor of Algiers and demanded immediate negotiations for a treaty. To conduct these negotiations the Dey came on board Decatur's ship and begged that there might be a continuation of tribute, if only of a little powder, for form's sake. The Dey knew that should

the United States refuse to pay tribute, all of the nations would follow the example, and the Barbary States would no longer receive a large portion of their wealth from these sources. "If you insist on receiving powder as tribute," said Decatur, "you must expect to receive balls with it." The Dey yielded, and a treaty was concluded with Algiers, followed by others with Tunis and Tripoli. Thus the United States, the youngest of all the nations, was the first to put an end to that surprising submission to the piratical Barbary States.

As might be expected, the country was in the worst of financial conditions, and the immediate measures of the Secretary of the Treasury and of Congress were for the purpose of bettering commercial affairs. A new national bank was chartered, with a capital of thirty-five million dollars, and duties were raised on imports to such an extent that they amounted almost to prohibition. The Democrats, or the Southern element, were in favor of this policy which protected their great staple, cotton, but the men of New England opposed it, since it ruined the carrying trade, which was their great source of profit, and which the war had deprived them of for the last four years. The free-trade party was led by Daniel Webster, of Massachusetts, and the tariff party by John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina. All the flourishing sea-ports of New England, from Portsmouth to Long Island Sound, received at this time a blow from which they never recovered.

As another presidential election neared, the power of the Federal party continued to wane until it was quite annihilated. James Monroe, of Virginia, was made President in 1817. He had fought in the Revolutionary War, and had been Secretary of State under Madison. Though an amiable man, he had but little strength of character, and was not well calculated to manage the affairs of State. He was not well established, when he was called upon to consider some serious matters on the southern frontier. For a short time it looked as if America might once more be plunged in war, and this time with Spain, as well as England. Florida, which was still a Spanish province, was the home of the Seminole Indians, and these savages had for many years offered protection to the slaves who sought it. It will be remembered that many years before there had been an insurrection among the slaves of South Carolina and Georgia, and that they had fled into Florida. There had been three generations of people since that time, but the slave-holders of the States mentioned could never forget that within a short distance of them were hundreds of people who were their property. When, therefore, there was any war with the Indians

of Florida, it was always practically a slave hunt, and both the Spaniards and Seminoles were quick to aid in repulsing such movement.

When the British army left Florida, in 1814, a colonel by the name of Nichols remained in Florida, and having much sympathy for the Indians, he built a fort for them on the Appalachicola, near its mouth. This he supplied with large quantities of arms and ammunition, and returned to England, leaving the fort in the hands of the Seminoles. It soon passed from their hands into those of the negro refugees. General Edmund P. Gaines, who had charge of the southern frontier, continually complained of this "negro fort," and united with Georgia in urging the Federal government to war. There was no question but that the fort was an excellent place of refuge for any overburdened slaves who found a chance to escape from the lash of the overseer, and as the slave-holders believed that the Federal government was framed for the purpose of protecting their interests, and that their chief duties lay in that direction, it is not strange that the Southern States should assume the government to be willing to take up arms for the purpose of recovering these unfortunates.

In July, 1816, a detachment of Americans was sent to attack this fort, and some red-hot shot entered the magazine, where nearly eight hundred barrels of gunpowder were stored. The fort was laid in ruins instantly, and two hundred and seventy of the three hundred and thirty-four inmates killed outright, most of the others dying from their wounds soon after. The inmates were negroes and Indians, of both sexes and all ages. An Indian chief and the negro commander were among those who were not killed by the explosion, and these were tortured to death after the Indian manner. It is not surprising that in the year that followed, the settlers were murdered, and the settlements robbed. The wonder is rather that the retaliations were not more numerous. The Seminole chiefs warned the American soldiers not to cross the Flint river, saying that the land beyond was theirs, and that they should protect it by every means in their power. General Gaines did not regard this warning, and marched upon the Seminole village, burning it to the ground. The Seminoles took to the forest and waited. A few days later a boat passed down the river carrying forty soldiers, with some women and children. The Indians, concealed upon the bank, killed every one of these except four men, who swam to the shore, and one woman, who was kept in captivity by a chief.

The command in this border war was now given to Andrew Jackson. Jackson paid no attention to the orders given him to call upon

the militia of the border States through their governments, but raised a volunteer force among his old companions-in-arms in Tennessee—all of them magnificent fighters, and men who worshiped Andrew Jackson as the hero of his country. On the site of the negro fort he built and garrisoned another, which he called Fort Gadsden. From here he advanced toward the Bay of St. Marks, driving away without difficulty the few Seminoles who tried to intercept him. The Spanish Governor of the fort at St. Marks could not make a defense, and Jackson marched in on the 7th of April, hauled down the Spanish flag and raised the American in its place. A few days before, an American armed vessel had sailed up the bay, ran up English colors, and thus enticed on board two well-known Seminole chiefs who were supposed to have been the leaders in the recent massacre. They were brought on shore and hung by Jackson's orders. A strong garrison was left at St. Marks and the march was resumed. Jackson wished to march upon and surprise the Indian town Suwannee, which was said to be a place of resort for negro refugees. Jackson was too late, however, for when he reached the village he found it deserted.

At about this time occurred one of those incidents which showed Andrew Jackson's inflexible and iron nature. At St. Marks he had taken prisoner a Scotchman named Alexander Arbuthnot, who was a trader with the Indians. He had a depot of goods near Suwannee, and from his writing to his son to remove the goods to a place of safety, the Indians were warned of the advance of the Americans. On this account Jackson chose to look upon him as a spy. At Suwannee, Robert C. Ambrister, an officer of the English army, who had been suspended from duty for a year on account of fighting a duel, got into the American camp by mistake. It had been his intention to join the Indians. He was therefore kept as a prisoner of war. Both these men were sentenced to death. Arbuthnot was hanged and Ambrister shot. These executions were against all law and entirely without justification. Upon Jackson's previous campaign he had caused six militiamen to be shot, because they claimed that their terms of enlistment had expired, and that they should return to their homes. The men were honest in their claim, and were entirely innocent of any intention to offend.

When Jackson reached Fort Gadsden upon his return, he was met with a protest against this invasion of Spanish territory from the Government of Pensacola. He promptly turned back, reoccupied Pensacola and took the fort to which the Governor had fled. It is said that he afterwards regretted that he did not hang the Governor. Jackson

tried afterwards to shift the responsibility of all these aggressions upon the shoulders of Monroe, but it is not rightly known where the greater part of the blame should be put. It was not Andrew Jackson's habit to ask permission of any one to do what he considered his duty. Negotiations for a treaty with Spain were being conducted in Washington, and in February, 1819, they were concluded. The Floridas were ceded to the United States for the sum of five million dollars.

The breach between the Southern and the Northern States was widening. The value of slave labor rose as the new lands on the lower Mississippi opened fresh fields for cultivation. Slave-raising had become a science, and it was concluded by the economists that it was better to use up a gang of negroes in seven years and supply their places by new purchases, than to attempt to prolong the lives of the gang in hand by moderate labor. The invention of the cotton gin had also greatly increased the value of slaves, for two hundred pounds of fibre could be freed of seeds in a single day by the gin. As it was difficult to overstock the market with this produce, thus it became almost impossible to overstock the plantations with slaves. There was nothing the slave-holders so much dreaded as legislative interference, and it was their constant ambition to keep a man in the presidential chair who should look after the interests of this wicked traffic, and see to it that the Northern States did not get in the ascendancy. To do this it was necessary that they should insist that as many slave States were included in the Union as free States. Thus, after Indiana, came Mississippi, in 1817, a free State and a slave State. After Illinois, 1818, came Alabama, 1819, a free State and a slave State. In March, 1818, the citizens of Missouri asked permission of Congress to form a State constitution, and to be admitted into the Union. Missouri lay beyond that district where slavery had existed up to this time, and Congress, and indeed the whole country, was divided upon the question as to whether Missouri should be a slave State or not. In admitting the other slave States to the Union, Congress had not instituted slavery, but only allowed it to exist. Should the government conclude to permit slavery in Missouri, it would be giving official encouragement to it. When a formal bill was entered in February, 1819, for the admission of Missouri, a New York Congressman proposed, as a condition of admission, that from that moment there should be no personal servitude within the State except of those already held as slaves, and that these should be freed within a short time. The South met this proposition with defiance and the haughtiest indignation. The North was threatened with terrible pun-

ishment for her interference with the States of the South. Even as the question was being discussed a slave-coffle passed the Capitol, the men being bound together with chains and the women and children walking behind under the lash of a slave-driver. But this degrading sight served no other purpose than to point the paragraph of an eloquent Senator. For many weeks the debate went on passionately, and finally, when Maine asked for admission into the Union, the Southern men protested that she could only be admitted on the condition that Missouri was allowed to come in as a slave State. Had not some of the Northern men gone over to the side of the South, slavery might have been kept out of Missouri, but at last the Southern faction grew so strong that it became necessary to accept a compromise, which is known as the Missouri Compromise, in which slavery was prohibited in all that portion of the Louisiana purchase lying north of 35° , $30'$, excepting Missouri. This compromise was only carried by much trickery, and what little good there was in the compromise was taken out of it by the President and the Cabinet. When the bill was brought to the President he asked two questions. First, whether Congress had a constitutional right to prohibit slavery in a territory. The Cabinet were all agreed that Congress had such a right. Second, he wished to know if the section prohibiting slavery "forever," referred only to the territorial condition or whether it also applied when the Territory became a State. With the exception of John Quincy Adams, the Cabinet claimed that this referred only to the Territory, and that when any of these Territories became States, they could admit slaves, should they choose to do so. In the next session of Congress a bill was passed preventing free negroes and mulattoes from settling in Missouri under any pretext whatever. In short, negroes in Missouri were to have no rights—they were not under any circumstances citizens. Thus did the Federal government make itself responsible for slavery, and aided in its establishment where it had not previously existed. From this time forward the fight between slavery and freedom was an open one.

FOR FURTHER READING

FICTION—Leba Smith's "Major Jack Downing."

Hall's "Legends of the West."

W. G. Simms' "Guy Rivers."

W. G. Simms' "Richard Hurdis."

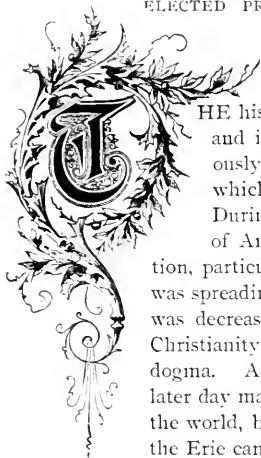


FALL OF TABLE ROCK.

CHAPTER LXXIX.

The Second Adams.

MONROE'S ADMINISTRATION—ELECTION TO THE PRESIDENCY OF JOHN
QUINCY ADAMS—THE ASSERTION OF STATE SUPREMACY IN
GEORGIA — TARIFF DISPUTES — ANDREW JACKSON
ELECTED PRESIDENT — THE FINANCIAL
CRISIS OF 1837.



THE history of a nation is not confined to its wars and its disasters. These, though they may seriously disturb, cannot uproot the home life in which the seed of the growth and evolution lies. During Monroe's administration the civilization of America was becoming more profound. Educa-

tion, particularly in the Northern and Western States, was spreading rapidly. The power of church doctrine was decreasing and in its place was springing up a Christianity in which there was more kindliness than dogma. Already that private enterprise, which at a later day made America the most convenient country in the world, began to show itself. DeWitt Clinton dug the Erie canal, three hundred and sixty-three miles long, connecting Lake Erie and all the upper lakes with the

tide-waters of the Atlantic. Noah himself, when he built his ark, could hardly have met with more ridicule than did Clinton when he began this great task. The first spadeful of earth was turned on the 4th of July, 1817, and in October, 1825, the largest canal in the world was opened for traffic. It ran through a rich and fertile wilderness—a wilderness soon broken by the building up of many towns upon the banks of the canal. Its original cost was seven million six hundred thousand dollars.

Steamboats were gradually coming into favor. In 1818 the steamer *Walk-in-the-water* ran regularly to Detroit from the eastern extremity of Lake Erie. In 1819 the first passage on a steamboat was made across

the Atlantic. This was by the ship *Savannah*, owned and commanded by Moses Rogers, of New London, Connecticut. He went from New York to Savannah, from Savannah to Liverpool, and then up the Baltic to St. Petersburg. He used both sails and wheels, depending on his sails when the wind was favorable. When the ship appeared off the coast of Ireland, she was supposed to be on fire, and a cruiser was sent out from Cork to offer her relief. Congress was too busy attending to political affairs to give any recognition to enterprise so remarkable, and the attempt was not repeated for twenty years.

At the close of Monroe's second term of office, many candidates for the presidential chair were before the people. The Federal party had been crushed out and the Democratic party was in power. New ideas were giving birth to new parties, but at this time it was hardly apparent what form they would take. Throughout the North and the West, however, there was a firm determination to put an end to Virginia supremacy. For twenty-four years the office of President had been held by men from Virginia, and the affairs of the entire nation had been made subservient to those of the South. Monroe was almost lost sight of in the midst of the controversies and agitations of the time. His long and honorable service for his country had not won for him the consideration and deference which it should. His yielding disposition had made him seem contemptible, although he was a man of calm judgment and undeniable patriotism. In his last message to Congress he fortunately gave voice to what is known as the Monroe Doctrine, and to this, more than anything else, is he indebted for the preservation of his name from oblivion. This message expressed great interest in the young South American States, some of which the King of Spain was attempting to force into a colonial condition. President Monroe declared that should any European power attempt to interfere in American affairs or to deprive any country on the Western continent of its liberty, it would be considered as a manifestation of an unfriendly disposition towards the United States. Monroe also said that henceforth the American continents were not to be considered as subjects for colonization in the future by any European power, meaning that hereafter no nation of the Eastern continent should have a right to usurp any territory upon either of the Americas, and that hereafter the unsettled country within the acknowledged boundaries of American States was exclusively their own, and not subject to foreign occupation.

In the presidential election which followed, John Quincy Adams, of Massachusetts, was elected. All the previous Presidents had taken

part in the revolutionary war or in the founding of the government, but John Quincy Adams belonged to the generation of younger men, and was but nine years old when his father had signed the Declaration of Independence. The opposition to Adams drew together the party composed mainly of Southern slave-holders with a considerable Northern alliance. To the support of the Administration rallied all those who were opposed to a slave-holding Democratic party, and which became known as National Republicans, although they did not assume this name definitely until near the close of Adams' administration. So intensely did the Southerners fear that slavery might be interfered with, that the Senators from the slave-holding States would not even allow Congress to send representatives to a Congress of the South American States, which was to meet at Panama with the purpose of defining their relations to each other and to foreign States, political and commercial, and the expediency of a league among themselves. They objected to this for the reason that the emancipation of slaves might be, and probably would be, one of the subjects discussed, and they all agreed that it was a subject which could not with safety be talked about. They constantly preached the doctrine of State rights, and seized every opportunity to uphold that theory in the Senate. Georgia was the first of the States to give a practical illustration of what the South meant by State rights. When she became a State, one condition of the cession of her western territory to the Federal Government was, that the title to the Indian lands should be acquired by the United States and transferred to her. The Government had been unable to redeem this promise, because the Creeks and the Cherokees would not part with their lands, and had sworn to put to death any chief who should prove such a renegade to his race as to make a treaty with the United States of which they should be a part. However, in 1825, certain chiefs concluded a treaty conveying these lands to the United States, and the Creeks kept their word and put them to death. The State of Georgia then ordered a survey of the territory occupied by the Indians, but it was found that should they do this, it would involve the country in an Indian war. Besides, the treaty which had been ratified by the Senate and the President did not put the Creeks out of possession until September 1, 1826, and it still lacked over a year of the time of its fulfillment. The President, therefore, refused to consent to the survey, but the Governor of Georgia insisted upon the right of the State to do as it saw fit in such matters, and pretended to see in the decision of the President a secret hostility to slavery. The Indians appealed to Adams and the

whole case was presented to Congress, but nothing was done. The Administration consented to be quiet, and Georgia was allowed to do as she pleased. Encouraged by her success at this time, Georgia soon asserted her power in other matters and the States of the South rejoiced in her success.

There had been a time when the protective policy was identified with the Southern States, but as they saw the North constantly increasing in riches and prosperity, they concluded that the North must be reaping more than her share of the benefits which arose from the protection of commercial industries, and they therefore decided to advocate free trade measures. The North had been forced to take up industries by the very protective policy which the South had advocated, and now wished to abide by the principles of protection. Hereafter, the question of tariff became a sectional one, the North advocating protection and the South free trade. As a matter of fact, the North, with its free labor, would have succeeded under any international arrangement, while the South, with its reluctant and groveling slave labor, could hope for nothing but a succession of economical problems.

In 1828 a comprehensive tariff bill was passed, in which the protection on wool, iron, lead, hemp, distilled spirits and various other articles of general importance was increased. This was made the chief opposition to the Northern Administration.

During the closing years of Adams' administration occurred the Black Hawk War. In 1830 a treaty was made with the tribes of Sacs and Foxes by which their lands in Illinois was ceded to the United States. But they were unwilling to leave their land, and the Governor of Illinois called out a militia force to compel them to cross the Mississippi. Black Hawk, a proud and patriotic chief of the Sacs, then about sixty years old, gathered a small force of warriors and returned in March, 1832. In a short time the pioneers were harassed by having their farms laid waste and their houses burned. Not infrequently the massacre of the farmers followed. The Governor of Illinois called for volunteers, and a force of about twenty-four hundred men was soon marching after Black Hawk's band of one thousand. The chief fled, but was overtaken and defeated on the Wisconsin river. The survivors retreated northward and were again overtaken near Bad-axe river, on the left bank of the Mississippi. Here many of the Indians were shot in the water while trying to swim the stream, and others were killed on a little island where they sought refuge. Fifty prisoners were taken, most of whom were squaws and children. Black Hawk, Keokuk and

several other chiefs surrendered, and were taken to Washington to make a sad acknowledgment of their subjection.

In the presidential election of 1828 Andrew Jackson was elected by a very large majority, and when the inaugural ceremonies were performed in the following March, a larger crowd gathered in Washington from all parts of the country than had ever been seen there on a like occasion. Calhoun, who had been Vice-President under Adams, had been again chosen to act with Jackson. Jackson began his administration by removing from office all who had not been his partisans—an example which has been followed by every President since, except Cleveland. Washington made nine removals from office, John Adams nine, Jefferson thirty-nine, Madison five, Monroe nine, John Quincy Adams two, and Jackson not less than two thousand. In one week he vetoed more bills sent him by Congress than all his predecessors in office had vetoed in forty years. He was a man of such peculiar and inflexible character that his administration was invested with great interest. No one could be indifferent to him or to what he advised. No public man in America had warmer friends or more bitter enemies, and if one class exaggerated his virtues, the other doubtless exaggerated his faults. He allowed his Cabinet to disperse and Washington to divide itself into social cliques, because of his staunch defence of the wife of the Secretary of War, about whom unfortunate reports were circulated. He insisted that this woman should be recognized in society, and forced the ladies of Washington to open their doors to her. He defended her with that zeal which distinguished him in everything that he took up; not alone because her husband was a personal friend, nor entirely because it was his natural instinct to defend a woman, however undeserving, but because his own wife had been especially unfortunate, and had met with criticisms which saddened her life. If he could keep another from suffering in a similar manner what his wife had, he wished to do so. He had been married to his own wife nearly forty years, when the discovery was made that the divorce which she had obtained from a former husband was not legal. As soon as this was discovered, proper legal steps were taken and Jackson and his wife were married again. This was tortured by Jackson's enemies into a scandal, by which Jackson, one of the purest of men, suffered no less than his wife. After that wife was dead, it was not strange that Jackson should try to vindicate her case by defending that of another woman. He did this in his usual imperious and overbearing way. Washington was filled with scandals; the Cabinet was broken up; his niece, who presided over the White

Honse, was sent away because she would not receive the woman he was defending, and he made himself absurd with wild fits of rage in public when he saw some slight put upon her. These matters, small as they were in themselves, came to have a strong political bearing, and for the first time American politics were smirched with personal scandals.

One of the political measures which distinguished Jackson's administration was his hostility to the United States Bank. He suggested that a national bank, founded upon the credit and revenues of the government, might be devised, which would be constitutional and beneficial to the finances of the country. The United States Bank made a stubborn resistance, and gave all the reasons for its existence which its advocates could invent for it. The charter had yet five years to run, but application was made for a new one. The President's adherents in the House demanded an investigation, and a committee was appointed in which the majority approved its management. After a long discussion, a bill to renew the charter passed both Houses, but was vetoed by the President. As the two-thirds majority necessary to pass it over his veto was lacking, the measure fell through. Meanwhile, the time arrived for a new election. Clay was Jackson's competitor, and was supported by the high tariff party. The anti-Masons came into existence at this period, and they also supported Clay. This party originated in 1826. William Morgan, a Mason, had written a book which pretended to expose the secrets of the order. He was supposed to have been killed by the direction of his official superiors, and a party was formed which opposed the Masonic and all other secret orders.

Jackson had a growing popularity. The revenue during his administration had far exceeded the expenditure, and the national debt was being rapidly paid off. One reason for this was that the Democrats at that time were opposed to the expenditure of government money for internal improvements, and that Jackson had vetoed many bills favoring such measures. The West India trade had long been a matter of dispute between England and the United States. This was brought to a rather unsatisfactory adjustment before the close of Jackson's first administration and the trade was opened to Americans, but the conditions were not dignified. About this time the country was called upon to consider a peculiar problem. Its revenue was much larger than it could find any use for, and the question was, How should it be reduced? The first answer which would occur to any one was that the tariff should be reduced, but protection was a pet which could not be

driven from the arms of the American people. Mr. Clay provided a bill for the reduction of duties upon foreign products, except where they came in conflict with articles of domestic manufacture. This caused much discontent. In South Carolina, especially, it was thought that the duties imposed were altogether too favorable to Northern manufactures, and a convention was finally held in that State to plan secession from the Union. It was decided that no duty should be paid in South Carolina after a certain day, and that if the United States attempted to force such payment, then South Carolina should organize a separate government. Mr. Calhoun, the Vice-President of the United States, was to be placed at the head, and medals were made with the inscription, "John C. Calhoun, first President of the Southern Confederacy," and circulated among the people. The men devoted themselves everywhere to military drilling, and the women made palmetto cockades and prepared ensigns of State sovereignty. The palmetto was the symbol chosen for the new nation. This was called "nullification," a word which had been invented many years before by some ingenious Southern Senators.

But though President Jackson was the hero of the Southern States, he was too good a patriot to encourage them in such measures as these. He issued a proclamation announcing that "to say any State may at pleasure secede from the Union, is to say that the United States are not a nation." He denied the right of either nullification or secession, pointed out the absurdity of State sovereignty, and told the people of South Carolina that if they resisted the law, they would be put down by force of arms. He hastened to send troops to the forts of South Carolina, as well as vessels of war, placing all under the command of General Winfield Scott. But as usual, compromises were proposed in the Senate and accepted which arranged matters as South Carolina desired, and the North meekly did as she was bidden.

Another matter which caused much debate in Congress was the public lands. The sale of these was a great source of revenue, and as the price upon them was higher than that which most emigrants were willing to pay, emigration tended toward the extreme West, beyond the surveyed frontier, to settle where no immediate payment was required. The emigration from Europe straight to the Western States was very large. In 1837, it was nearly eighty thousand, but the next year it was lower. This was on account of the great financial crisis of 1837, caused largely by the existence of State banks which put about a larger amount of paper currency than they could carry. The only banks in

the country which did not suspend at this time were those few in which the government deposited its specie, and, indeed, some of these were involved in the ruin. Though the people were in this weakened financial condition, the treasury of the government continued to have a surplus, and it was decided that all surplus over five million dollars should be divided among the States as a loan only to be recalled at the discretion of Congress. Such a thing had never been heard of before, and it was difficult to tell how to conduct it. The manner in which it was distributed added to the irritation which already existed in the government, for the people of the North felt that far more than their rightful share had been given to the people of the South. Twenty-eight million dollars was thus given to the States, part of which spent it in public improvements, the rest dividing it among private citizens. But all of the financial affairs of the nation were conducted in a slipshod way, and the close of the year 1837 found States, as well as people, burdened with debt beyond their ability to pay. It was a period, however, when recuperation was easy. Steam was coming into general use. The first railway in America for passengers was chartered by the Maryland legislature in March, 1827. This was the Baltimore and Ohio. Not until 1829, however, did Peter Cooper, of New York, build a locomotive. By 1840, there were nearly three thousand miles of railway in the United States. Manufactories were rapidly increasing, and the woolen and cotton goods made were improving in quality. It was in 1840 that Sidney Morse, of New York, obtained a patent for his electric telegraph. The census taken in 1830, under Jackson's administration, showed a population of nearly thirteen millions. Two new States were added to the Union, Arkansas, in 1836, and Michigan, in 1837. Michigan came in as a **free State**, but Arkansas was dedicated to slavery.

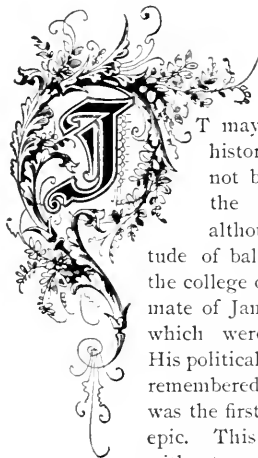
FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY—"Black Hawk's Life of Himself."
Moncrieff's "Men of the Backwoods."
FICTION—G. C. Eggleston's "The Big Brother."
POETRY—H. R. Schoolcraft's "Talladega."

CHAPTER LXXX.

Fiction and Truth.

THE LITERARY HISTORY OF THE LAST FIFTY YEARS — THE
ABOLITIONISTS.



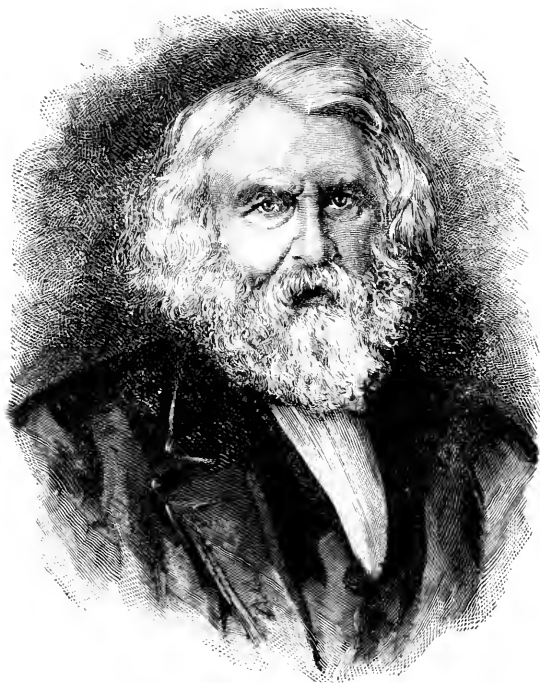
T may be wise at this period to renew the literary history of the country. Philip Freneau, a Huguenot by descent and a New Yorker by birth, was the first American poet to attain eminence, although the Revolution started into life a multitude of ballad-writers. Philip Freneau graduated at the college of New Jersey in 1771, where he was a classmate of James Madison. He published four volumes, which were read in England as well as America. His political burlesques were popular, but are not so well remembered as his more serious poems. Joel Barlow was the first American to make an attempt at a national epic. This he termed "Columbiad." It is stately, but without grace. Dr. James McClurg, of Virginia, wrote many romantic verses of the sort usually penned in ladies' albums at that time.

Charles Brockden Brown was the first American novelist. The history of this country had been too severe to encourage fiction. In the South, there was a comparative indifference to letters, and in the North, literature took, for the most part, the form of a religious controversy. Brown's novels were gloomy, and it is for this reason that they are not better known. David Ramsay prepared some valuable books, and Jeremy Belknap wrote a history of New Hampshire, and a series of biographies. The first standard book written by a New England woman is the "History of New England," by Hannah Adams. Dr. Abel Holmes' "Annals of America" is a very valuable book. Chief Justice Marshall wrote a "Life of Washington," and William Wirt a biography of Patrick Henry. John Ledyard was the first

American traveler to write a history of his exploits. Dr. Benjamin Rush wrote voluminously about medicine. Alexander Wilson was the author of some works on ornithology; Samuel Mitchell was the first man in this country to write on chemistry; Benjamin Barton was the earliest American authority on botany, and Benjamin Thompson wrote on physics.

The theological writers of the last part of the eighteenth century and the first part of the nineteenth were very numerous. Among them were William Ellery Channing, Henry Ware, Andrew Norton, Noah Worcester, Moses Stuart and Leonard Woods. In later years came Lyman Beecher, the Alexanders, President Hopkins, Professor Edward A. Park, and many others too numerous to mention. Dr. Charles Dodge, a Philadelphian and a graduate of Princeton College, is one of the most dignified of our Calvinistic philosophers, but William Ellery Channing is undoubtedly at the head of the earlier schools of theological and metaphysical writers. Later, came a more brilliant school of theological writers. Among these were Orville Dewey, William H. Furness, John Freeman Clark, Henry W. Bellows, Andrew Peabody and William R. Alger. These were Unitarian writers. Theodore Parker, Cyrus A. Bartol, Moncure D. Conway and Octavius P. Frothingham were among the writers who started in religious work and gradually employed their pens in secular writings. Mark Hopkins, of Williams College, and Noah Porter, of Yale, are among the most distinguished of our mental scientists. Thomas C. Upham, a professor in Bowdoin, wrote a work in 1831 on the elements of mental philosophy. James Marsh, president of the University of Vermont, was an influential Transcendentalist. Lawrence P. Hiscock was a profound writer on metaphysics as a science. Francis Wayland, president of Brown University, was an excellent writer on political economy, philosophy and ethics. Taylor Lewis, a professor in Union College, was a linguist, philosopher and scientist. Each church had its staunch denominational writers, some of whom have exerted a strong influence, notably John McClintock, of the Methodists.

The "Knickerbocker writers" is a term applied to Washington Irving, James Kirk Paulding, Joseph Rodman Drake and Fitz-Green Halleck. Washington Irving was born in New York City in 1783, and absorbed there the curious life which he has so delicately and faithfully portrayed. At nineteen he wrote for a newspaper edited by his brother Peter, taking up theological and social topics, and using the name of "Jonathan Old-Style." In 1814 he visited Europe, where he



HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW.

met Washington Allston, the first distinguished American painter. On his return to New York he started the *Salmagundi*, a name still preserved in New York to signify what is best in literature and in art. In this paper the social foibles and fads were served up in a way which was thoroughly original. A few years later, Irving gained the friendship of some distinguished Englishmen, and from this time his good fortune dated. His books sold for excellent sums, and he was the first American to make a really excellent living by his pen. Charles Brockden Brown was the only man before him to rely entirely upon the proceeds brought him by his pen. Irving's last work was his five-volumed life of Washington. James Kirke Paulding, who was five years older than Irving, worked upon the *Salmagundi* under Irving's supervision, beginning his career as a poet. In the course of his life he wrote novels, humorous sketches and pamphlets as well, his "Dutchman's Fireside" being the best known. Joseph Rodman Drake was a writer of delicate touch. He was born in 1795, and lived to be only twenty-five years old. Fitz-Green Halleck was born in Connecticut, in 1790, and lived till 1867. He wrote, among many excellent poems, that of "Marco Bozarris," known to every schoolboy. Richard Henry Dana was a scholarly poet, and Charles Sprague, a Bostonian, wrote verses of high quality. Francis Scott Key is especially known for the "Star-Spangled Banner," written during the siege of Fort McHenry, in Baltimore, during the war of 1812. There are several other writers who are famous for one poem. Samuel Wordsworth wrote "The Old Oaken Bucket;" John Howard Payne, "Home Sweet Home," and Albert G. Green "Old Grimes is Dead." William Augustus Muhlenberg is the author of that tender hymn, "I would not live always."

William Cullen Bryant, the oldest of our great American poets, was born in 1794. At ten, he was writing verses for the country papers, and by the time he was in college was already famous as a writer. He was but twenty-two years old when he wrote his celebrated poem, "Thanatopsis." This was published in the *North American Review*, in 1816. Bryant is, as everyone knows, a poet of nature, whose verses are as polished, though far less spontaneous, than those of Wordsworth. He was over seventy when he added to his extensive writings a translation of the "Illiad." This is very generally accepted as the best English Homer. Later, he published a translation of the "Odyssey."

Henry Wadsworth Longfellow and John Greenleaf Whittier were both born in 1807. Early in his manhood Longfellow took the professorship of modern languages at Bowdoin College, spending three

years in Europe to qualify himself for the position. These three years in Europe have given us many of Longfellow's most excellent poems, although those which are most valued by Americans are the ones which preserve so accurately and tenderly the life of New England and the legends of early America. In the list of his works is a most excellent translation of the divine comedy of Dante. John Greenleaf Whittier was a writer conscientious, true and fearless, but lacked the high art of Longfellow, and the sympathetic quality, although at heart he was most sympathetic and humane. That he was a natural philanthropist and a writer fearless of consequences, there is no need to say.

Oliver Wendell Holmes was born in Cambridge, Connecticut, in 1809. Like Bryant, Longfellow and Lowell, he started out as a lawyer, but soon took up medicine, studying in Europe. He is a lyrical writer of great facility, but his prose works are more popular than his poetical ones. His "Breakfast-table Sketches" are among the American classics. Like Holmes, James Russell Lowell has written both in poetry and prose. His poems have been published in numerous volumes; some of them were elaborate and allegorical, others caustic and humorous. At one time he was the leading American critic.

Edgar Allen Poe is one of the most picturesque figures in our national literature. He was a melancholy man, who hated restraint of every sort, and who was the slave of morbid fancies and of opium. He was not the first man to rise by stress of these misfortunes to a position which more wholesome and temperate men could hardly hope to attain.

Among the painstaking, though not famous, American poets are James Gates Percival, Nathaniel P. Willis, George Morris, Edward Pinkney, Charles Fenno Hoffman and George H. Calvert. Dr. Thomas Dunn English was made famous by a single song, "Ben Bolt." George H. Boker, of Philadelphia, was one of the earliest dramatic writers of this country. C. B. Cranch was one of the most scholarly writers of his day, and Alfred B. Street is known by his poems of nature. He was also a painter. W. W. Story has joined poetry and sculpture. John G. Saxe was the earliest of our excellent American humorists. Alice and Phoebe Cary were among the first women poets. Among the best known of the early historians are Richard Hildreth, born in Massachusetts, in 1807; George Bancroft, author of the chief history of the United States, also born in Massachusetts; George Gorham Palfrey, author of a history of New England, and William Hickling Prescott, the most famous and brilliant of American historians. His "History of Ferdinand and Isabella" was translated immediately upon its

publication into five European languages. The "Conquest of Mexico," "The Conquest of Peru" and "Philip II" were not less successful. No historian has a higher reputation or a more dignified and eloquent style. John Lothrop Motley is best known for his "Rise of the Dutch Republic," and "The History of the United Netherlands." George W. Green's "Historical Review of the American Revolution" is the best record of the time.

A considerable number of travelers have won distinction as writers. Among these are Elisha Kane and Isaac Hays. James Fennimore Cooper was the first American to write novels which could be considered extensively popular. His works are thoroughly national, full of romantic interest, and embody, as no other books do, the wild, free life of the American frontier. He also wrote an able history of the United States, a series of biographies of naval officers, and an attack on the system of trial by jury.

Nathaniel Hawthorne was born in Salem, Massachusetts, in 1804. He was a morbid boy with a most studious tendency, and his surroundings were melancholy in the extreme. His mystical, elegant and romantic novels are the natural outcome of his refined and morbid disposition. He lived upon historic ground, saw the value of his associations, and embodied his ideas in tales of unequaled fantasy and power. To mention the good American writers in fiction would be a task too extensive to contemplate. Those who exercised a wide influence will be mentioned later.

The early part of the century saw some orators unequaled for their powers. The speeches of Daniel Webster, John C. Calhoun, Henry Clay, Edward Everett, Rufus Choate, William H. Seward, Charles Sumner, Robert C. Winthrop, Wendell Philips and William Lloyd Garrison are famous. William Lloyd Garrison, in 1831, established a weekly paper in Boston called the *Liberator*. Its purpose was the immediate emancipation of the slaves, and it preached, as no other paper had ever dared to, the iniquity of slavery and the need for its speedy termination. It was not, however, the first paper of the sort ever published in the country. During General Jackson's administration a Quaker named Benjamin Lundy had begun a newspaper called the *Genius of Universal Emancipation*. This urged that slaves should be gradually freed. Garrison had been the assistant editor of the paper, but the religion which he preached accepted of no compromises. He said in the first edition: "I will not equivocate; I will not excuse; I will not retreat a single inch, and I will be heard." In all the perse-

cutions, revilement and legislative rebuke which followed, he was true to his word. People who sympathized with him and upheld his views were called Abolitionists—a word which to speak even now arouses feelings of enthusiasm and deep hatred. “Fanatic” was the kindest and most considerate of all the names which these determined people were called by their enemies—and their friends were few. It was nothing new to say that slavery was wrong, and that the Republic was inconsistent in keeping a constitution which set forth the liberty and equality of all persons, and yet permitted three million persons within its borders to be deprived of their liberty.

So vigorous had Southern rule been, and so craftily had its supremacy been sustained in Congress, that it was little less than treason to speak of the possibility of manumission. The Church, both in the North and the South, was prompt to hold up the Divine authority for slavery, and to quote the Bible in its defence. As the newer Southern States were admitted to the Union and their territory opened up, slaves were brought in great numbers from the slave-breeding States of the Atlantic and placed here upon great sugar and cotton plantations. These plantations had been cultivated and stocked with negroes, on borrowed money. This money was borrowed largely from Northern capitalists, and this was one of the many reasons why the institution of slavery met with such staunch support in the North.

The Abolitionist were men and women of great independence and vigor of thought. Almost without exception they were the leaders in the communities in which they lived. Their private lives were irreproachable, their standing in all ways honorable—the fact that they had the moral courage to stand against the world is guarantee enough that they were disinterested and morally brave—but they were ostracized by the States, the Church and society as if they had been criminals or offenders against decency. They were accused of the most injudicious acts, which have never been proven against them. It was said that they tried to lash the slaves, by their eloquence, into insurrection, but the truth is that their methods were directly opposed to this, and that their appeal was made to the conscience of the slave-holder and to the legislators of the nation.

They were held responsible largely for the Southampton massacre, although probably not one of the desperate men engaged in that had ever heard of abolition, of William Lloyd Garrison or of the *Liberator*. In August, 1831, a negro slave named Nat. Turner led a little band of six men in a passionate revolt which has been dignified by the name of

insurrection. He was a man of much force of character and a natural mystic. He heard voices in the air and saw signs in the sky. Roaming at night in the forests, he saw visions and portends which pointed out his divine mission. The Bible was full of promises which he thought pointed especially to him. He believed that he was to lead his suffering people to freedom. But he was impractical and lacked executive foresight. He took but six men in his confidence, and with them started out to go from house to house and kill every white person within. Beginning at Turner's own house, they killed his master, and going on from plantation to plantation were joined by the slaves, and in forty-eight hours killed fifty-five white persons without loss to themselves. But the band finally became separated, and was attacked by two bodies of white men, who succeeded in dispersing them. Thus the insurrection was quelled at the outset. The country was searched for the offenders. Turner had escaped to the woods and lived under a pile of fence rails for six weeks, marking the passage of the dreary days on a notched stick. He was discovered and took to the wheat-fields, where he lived among the wheat stacks for ten days. Again he was discovered, but escaped and kept the whole country searching for him for some time. One day he crept from a hole beneath a felled pine tree and stood face to face with a man who had a leveled rifle in his hand. He surrendered, and one week later was hanged. Of the fifty-three other negroes formally tried, seventeen were convicted and hanged, twelve were transported and the rest acquitted.

But the fiercest retribution did not come from the law. Slaveholders held that they had a right to do as they chose with their own property, and to torture, punish, or execute at their will any negro in their possession whom they suspected of offense. The terror which spread through the South counterbalanced to a certain extent the sufferings of these poor blacks. Not a slave-holder slept securely in his bed. The consciousness of the iniquity upon which that part of the country was built and nourished made the proprietors constantly fearful. Every negro was watched with suspicion, and the most innocent actions threw the white community into terror. It was hardly believed in the South that the negro was a human being, yet it was perceived now that he was enough of a man to long for liberty, and take revenge for outrage. The people of the South virtually admitted all that the abolitionists ever claimed, and that was that the negro was a man.

In 1832, Garrison founded the New England Anti-Slavery Society. This was the parent of many like societies in different parts of the

country. To resist such agitation and to act as a sop to the morbid apprehensions of the slave-holders, President Jackson urged Congress to pass a law excluding anti-slavery publications from the mails. This bill was finally defeated, but not until the mails of the South had been examined over and over again in the search for Abolitionist pamphlets or anti-slavery expressions. Large rewards were offered in some of the slave-holding States for the apprehension of several of the leading Abolitionists. Mobs became frequent wherever the anti-slavery societies worked. A madness seemed to possess the people, and the slightest sympathy with the blacks was severely punished. One man was obliged to fly for his life in New Orleans because he offered a Bible to a slave. A doctor in Washington was thrown into prison because a package he received was accidentally wrapped in an anti-slavery paper. It was frequent diversion to burn the houses of Abolitionists, and destroy the printing office of any organ of the party. In 1836, a mob attacked a warehouse in Alton, Illinois, where a printing press was stored belonging to the Rev. E. P. Lovejoy. This was the fourth time that his printing materials had been destroyed and his paper suppressed. This time the matter was made certain by the murder of the editor. But they also succeeded in making him immortal, and he is known as one of the first martyrs of the cause of liberty. As a result of this outrage the Abolitionists won a new convert, Wendell Phillips, who, for thirty years, exercised a unique influence in the moral history of America.

Late in the year 1836, Pennsylvania Hall, in Philadelphia, was burned because it had been dedicated by an anti-slavery meeting, and the young poet Whittier had read one of his unqualified poems on freedom in it. In a few cases attempts were made to open schools for colored children in the North, but the teachers were always driven from the town, the schools destroyed and the books burned. Such acts were not the work of ruffians, but of the most dignified and influential citizens.

But nothing could stay the storm of discussion that swept over the country. Petitions by the thousand were sent to Congress, begging that it would exercise its undoubted right of abolishing slavery in the national domain which was under its exclusive control and of stopping the domestic slave trade. A handful of men, led by John Quincy Adams, fought for these petitions, but against them were all of the Southern and most of the Northern representatives. Adams stood to his principles in the midst of turmoil and disapprobation which would have silenced a weaker man. When, in 1835, William Slade asked that a petition for the abolition of slavery and the slave trade in the

District of Columbia be referred to a committee, the proposal met with an uproar in the House. The representatives from the Southern States left the House, and this was termed the secession of the Southern members. The word "secession" was cherished afterward. But the North was silenced by a compromise the next day and the Southern members consented to be appeased. Such compromises were constant, but there was a growing determination among the citizens of the North to be heard. Neither State nor Federal legislation could altogether quiet them. With the exception of a few Philadelphia Quakers, there had been, up to this period, but few men or women in the North who did not consider it his or her duty to return fugitive slaves to their masters. But the growing sympathy with the oppressed race changed this, and that curious system known as the "Underground Railway" was formed, by which fugitive slaves were helped from house to house, clothed, fed and harbored, and sent safely to Canada.

In 1841 occurred one of the many incidents relating to this period which are of such interest to the student of this question. An American slave ship, the *Creole*, sailed from Richmond with a cargo of one hundred and thirty-five slaves, gathered on the Virginia plantations. Among them was a man named Madison Washington. This man had once tasted liberty, for he had escaped to Canada, but had come back to release his wife, who was still a slave. He had been retaken and sold, and was now to be sent to a far southwest plantation where escape would be more difficult. As the *Creole* neared the Bahama Islands, Washington put himself at the head of nineteen of his fellows, whose only arms were four knives. These attacked the crew and succeeded in confining the captain and the white passengers, among whom were their owners. One slave trader was killed and several wounded. They forced the captain to take the boat into Nassau, New Providence, where all not engaged actively in the revolt were declared to be free. Washington and his eighteen companions were detained to be tried in the English courts—though practically their freedom was secured as soon as they came under the protection of England. There were some people in the North who were strong-minded enough to rejoice in the restoration to their natural freedom of one hundred and thirty-five human beings, but Calhoun, Clay and other Southern Senators denounced the English government for protecting acts which they pronounced piracy and murder.

A scene of violence took place in the House of Representatives when Joshua R. Giddings, of Ohio, offered a series of resolutions in which he

claimed that every man had a natural right in himself, and that once beyond the boundaries of the United States every slave was free. A vote of censure was passed on these resolutions by an overwhelming majority. Giddings resigned his seat, returned to Ohio, and appealed to his constituents. It was a marked sign of increasing sympathy with the anti-slavery cause that he was returned as quickly as possible by an increased majority of thousands, and from a State which a short time before had driven the teachers of negro schools beyond their borders in contumely. At this very time the Supreme Court of the United States was deciding upon the right of the recapture of fugitive slaves. What it finally decided, after much discussion, was that the law of slavery was supreme in the free, as in the slave States, and that it was the duty of every State to aid the slave-holder everywhere in recapturing the slave. Nowhere was the agitation upon the question of slavery more profound than in the churches. It was certainly a difficult nut for them to crack. The question of the marriage relation alone among the slaves was one which was quite enough to divide a church. But after all, the question was, and remained for many years, whether Africans were men and women with instincts of loyalty, purity and affection, or whether they were simply brutes, born to servitude, with no rights which the white men were bound to respect.

FOR FURTHER READING.

- HISTORY**—Johnson's "Garrison and the Times."
 Tanner's "Martyrdom of Lovejoy."
FICTION—L. Neville's "Edith Allen."
 Mrs. Stowe's "Dred."
 W. D. O'Connor's "Harrington."
 Beverly Tucker's "Partisan Leader."
 W. Adams' "The Sable Cloud."
 Holt's "Abraham Page."
POETRY—Whittier's "Voices of Freedom."
 Marion Harland's "Judith."

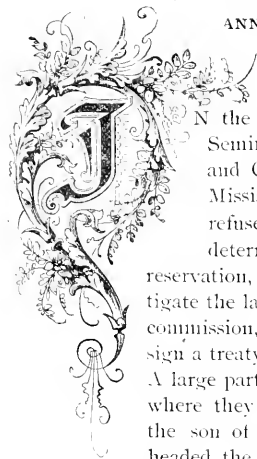


INDIANS ATTACKING FORT KING.

CHAPTER LXXXI.

A House Divided Against Itself.

SECOND SEMINOLE WAR—ELECTION OF VAN BUREN—FINANCIAL
DEPRESSION—ELECTION OF WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON—
THE DORR REBELLION—THE MORMONS—
ANNEXATION OF TEXAS.



IN the midst of Jackson's administration came the Seminole war. The Sacs and Foxes, Chickasaws and Choctaws had all been removed west of the Mississippi, but the Seminoles, in Florida, steadily refused to move. President Jackson was equally determined that they should leave their eastern reservation, and he sent seven chiefs westward to investigate the lands designed for them. With them went a commission, whose persuasions induced the chiefs to sign a treaty, without consulting the rest of the tribe. A large part of the Seminoles were determined to stay where they were, and a young chief named Osceola, the son of a half-breed woman and an Englishman, headed the opposition. His wife was a maroon, *i. e.*, a negro born among the Indians of Florida, and she had been captured by the former mistress of her mother and held as a slave. Osceola had the natural pride and steadfastness of an Englishman, added to the fiercer Indian characteristics. He wished to avenge his wife's captivity as well as to maintain the independence of his people. Under his leadership the Seminoles declared hostilities in 1835. Major Francis L. Dade was sent out with about one hundred and forty men against Osceola, but he and his men were fired upon by an unseen foe before they reached their destination, and only two of them escaped with their lives. The United States sent out General Gaines with seven hundred men, in February, from New Orleans. They attempted to march across the Florida country. The expedition was entirely unsuccessful

and General Scott assumed command. The Indians and negroes, meanwhile, were preying upon wagon trains and farms, and the country all about was kept in a state of terror. The summer of 1836 was very sickly, and the military posts were almost deserted. Not till autumn was any fighting done, and then the Americans failed to drive their enemies from their dark swamps. A change of commanders was tried, and Thomas S. Jessup entered upon the winter campaign with eight thousand men. The Indians retreated toward the everglades, and in February, 1837, they sued for peace. In March, the agreement to cease from war was signed at Fort Dade, the Indians stipulating that they were to remain in Florida. This the Government refused to permit, but seized seven hundred Indians and negroes, before the decision was announced to them, and sent them off to Tampa for shipment. Osceola was sent to Charleston and locked in the prison there, where he soon died of grief. But there were still many Indians and maroons hiding in the swamps and woods of Florida, and in May, 1837, General Zachary Taylor was sent out to hunt them from their places of refuge. Thirty-three blood-hounds had been imported from Cuba to track the fugitives. This plan was approved by both President Jackson and General Taylor; but, fortunately for the reputation of the United States, the blood-hounds would not track Indians, as they had only been taught to hunt negroes.

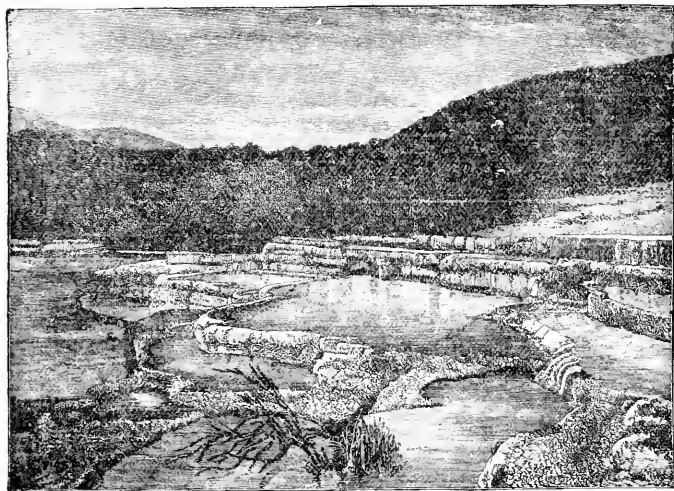
Several other commanders made ineffectual attempts to complete the subjection of these hunted creatures, and finally General William J. Worth, a man of considerable ability, was sent out in the spring of 1841 to conduct a summer campaign. Worth's troops, in small parties, went up the river and penetrated the swamps to the islands, where they destroyed the crops and the huts of the enemy. In a short time peace was secured. General Worth received the surrender of all the bands, and sent them to the west. The war had lasted seven years. Over five hundred persons had been taken from their wild, free life, and reduced to bondage. The fugitive slaves of the South no longer found an asylum in the everglades of Florida. This victory had cost the Americans forty million dollars, which was twice as much as was paid for the territories of Louisiana and Florida together. For each person reduced to slavery, the lives of three white men had been expended. But the slaveholders were satisfied. The great-grandsons of the slaves of their great-grandfathers had been returned to them, and they no longer made moan over their human property lying waste in the southern territory.

Martin Van Buren, of New York, was elected President in 1837. Like General Jackson, he was the candidate of the Democratic party. The opposition was now called the Whig party, and the chief quarrel between them was concerning State sovereignty. In this same year a rebellion broke out in Canada, and many of the people of the States bordering on Canada joined the rebellion—for there was a general sympathy in America with the insurgents. The United States made great efforts to maintain neutrality, and though it did not entirely succeed, the country had the discretion to avoid war.

The dissatisfaction with the Democratic administration was increasing. The financial troubles of 1837 spread over the country, and were laid generally to the mismanagement of the public funds and the ill-advised method of conducting the State banks. In 1840 came a political revolution. The Whig members of Congress proposed a national convention, at which a candidate for the presidency should be nominated. The canvass which followed this nomination began a new era in elections. The ratification meetings which have since become so popular were started at that time, and as the mode of travel was more convenient than it had ever been previously, they were attended by vast numbers of people. General William Henry Harrison, of Ohio, known for his soldierly qualities, was nominated as the candidate for the Whigs. He had been one of the earliest pioneers of the Far West, and some one gave him the name of the "Log-cabin Candidate." All over the country log cabins were built for political meetings. They were erected even in the midst of large cities, and the popular "mass meetings" were held in them. At the political celebrations the only drink was cider, the favorite beverage of the farmers. Ringing campaign songs were composed about the "Hero of Tippecanoe," and "Tippecanoe and Tyler, too"—John Tyler being the candidate for the vice-presidency. Never before had there been such a boisterous campaign, and an overwhelming vote was given for General Harrison, who was inaugurated President in 1841. He lived but a month after his inauguration, and Vice-President John Tyler, of Virginia, became President for the remainder of the four years.

In Rhode Island, in 1842, there was a revolt against the old colonial charter under which the State had always been governed. In this, the right of suffrage was restricted to the free-holders and their eldest sons, so that the popular representation had become very unequal. In the legislature of 1840, for instance, twenty-nine thousand of the inhabitants were represented by seventy members, and eighty thousand by thirty-

four members. It was in vain that the people appealed to the legislature to take measures for the reform of the constitution. A new constitution was formed by a popular convention in October, 1841, and accepted by the majority of voters. An election was held under it the following April, and Thomas Wilson Dorr chosen Governor. When he and the other State officers elected with him tried to assume their offices, they were resisted by those who held office under the charter, at the head of whom was Samuel W. King. Both sides took up arms and appealed to the Federal Government. The Dorr party were twice



BORDER OF GREAT SALT LAKE, UTAH

dispersed without bloodshed. Dorr was convicted of high treason and sentenced to imprisonment for life, but after three years was released and restored to full citizenship. Meanwhile the Rhode Island legislature had called a convention to draw up a constitution, and in May, 1843, a satisfactory constitution was ratified.

In New York, at about this time, there was trouble along the Hudson river, where the estates of the old Dutch patroons lay. The tenants who lived upon these estates were unwilling to pay rent to

the descendants of the early proprietors, and for a time there was armed resistance.

In Illinois, there was also much disturbance. The Mormons, or "Latter-Day Saints," had built a city named Nauvoo. At this time they had been founded fourteen years, and followed in all particulars the law which Joseph Smith, their founder, claimed to have discovered written on gold plates buried in the earth. The Mormons had first established themselves in Missouri, but were driven thence into Illinois. Here they were again assailed by mobs and forced out into the wilderness. In the midst of that wilderness they found the exquisite spot in the interior of Utah where they made their final settlement and still remain.

President Tyler soon lost his popularity. He had been accused of trying to break faith with the party which elected him. Whether this is true or not, it is certain that he broke his word with his Cabinet, and they all resigned, excepting Daniel Webster. As Webster was engaged in some important negotiations with England concerning the boundary line between Maine and New Brunswick, he felt that he owed it to the people to remain. In 1842, Mr. Webster, on the part of the United States, and Lord Ashburton, on the part of England, concluded a treaty which defined the boundary lines between New Brunswick and Maine. The line was also traced on to the Pacific Ocean, as it stands on all later maps.

When Tyler had taken his position of sympathy with the Southern States he formed a close alliance with Calhoun, the leader of the Southern party, and devoted himself for the rest of his administration to the cause of the South. As a result of this came the annexation of Texas. The Spaniards and the French had contested for Texas and established rival missions or religious settlements through it. Finally, the province of Texas revolted from Mexico and declared itself an independent State. Large American colonies had been established there and the Americans took part in its struggle for independence. The slave-holding element fixed envious eyes upon this great tract of land, which was more than twice as large as the States of New York, Pennsylvania and Ohio put together. Mr. Calhoun admitted that the object of securing Texas was to uphold the interests of slavery, extend its influence, and secure its permanent duration. The Whigs saw very clearly that if this immense tract of land was peopled with slaves and representation was determined by population, that freedom would be entirely outvoted in the Government forever. Mr. Webster's unwill-

ingness, as Secretary of State, to abet the admission of Texas caused him to be removed from office. Mr. Upshur was put in his place, but was killed soon after his appointment, and in March, 1844, Mr. Calhoun, the leader of the Southern faction, was made Secretary of State. A resolution for admission passed the United States House of Representatives February 25, 1845, and the United States Senate on March 1st. It was approved immediately by the President three days before he went out of office, and the United States assumed the Texas debt of seven and a half million dollars.

Florida was admitted as a State to the Union in 1845—the same year that James K. Polk, of Tennessee, was elected President of the United States.

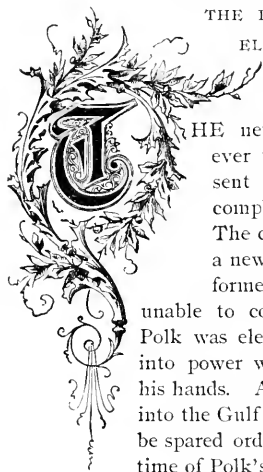
FOR FURTHER READING:

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Urquhart's "Annexation of Texas."
FICTION—Lowell's "Bigelow Papers."
Mayne Reid's "Osceola."
General Donaldson's "Sergeant Atkins."
E. C. Z. Judson's "The Volunteer."
H. Hazel's "The Light Dragoon."

CHAPTER LXXXII.

The Sad Plain of Monterey.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF POLK, AND THE WAR WITH MEXICO—
VARIOUS SEVERE BATTLES—CONQUEST OF CALIFORNIA AND
NEW MEXICO—OCCUPATION OF THE CITY OF
MEXICO—TREATY OF PEACE—BIRTH OF
THE FREE SOIL PARTY AND
ELECTION OF TAYLOR.



THE news of Polk's election was the first report ever transmitted by telegraph in America, being sent on a line which Professor Morse had just completed between Washington and Baltimore. The combined opposition of the Whig party and a new party called the Liberty party, which was formed to resist the influence of slavery, were unable to cope with Democratic supremacy, and Mr. Polk was elected by a considerable majority. He came into power with the certainty of a war with Mexico on his hands. A strong naval force had previously been sent into the Gulf of Mexico, and all the military which could be spared ordered to the southwestern frontier. At the time of Polk's inauguration, three thousand six hundred soldiers were at Corpus Christi, Texas, under General Zachary Taylor.

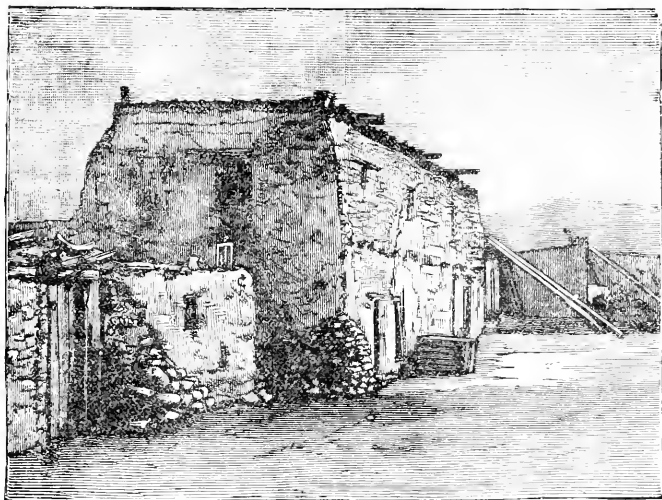
Texas was annexed by joint resolution to the United States in March, 1845, and a year later Taylor moved southward to a point on the Rio Grande, opposite Matamoras. At the same time he called upon the Governors of Louisiana and Texas for five thousand volunteers, and, wishing to open communication with Point Isabel, moved eastward. The Mexican general, Arista, wished to hinder his return, and planted six thousand men across his road at Palo Alto, nine miles from Matamoras. When Taylor returned and found his way blockaded, he gave battle. He had with him some heavy guns which worked terrible

havoc in the Mexican infantry, and in the midst of the conflict the prairie grass between the two lines took fire, furnishing a thick curtain of smoke, behind which Arista drew off his men. The next morning the Mexicans took position in a deep ravine at Resaca de la Palma. This ravine was shaped like a horseshoe, and the open side was towards the advancing Americans. But notwithstanding this superior position, the Americans succeeded in capturing the enemy's artillery, and putting the infantry to flight.

On the 13th of May, before news of these events reached Washington, Congress formally declared war, and authorized the President to call for fifty thousand volunteers for one year. The mass of the people of the United States were not willing to go to war about a mere question of boundary. They were somewhat dismayed by the call for volunteers, and thought that it was hardly worth risking so much merely to insure to the United States another hundred miles of territory. Texas claimed that its western boundary was the Rio Grande. Mexico claimed that it was the river Neuces. Congress pretended to believe that Mexico had first declared war, and President Polk labored in his message of 1846 to show that the territory of the United States had been invaded by the Mexicans. The fallacy of this statement was exposed by Abraham Lincoln, who was then a member of the House of Representatives. However, many volunteers were sent by the southwestern States, and when General Taylor's army was swelled to seven thousand men, he approached the fortified town of Monterey. This was garrisoned by ten thousand Mexicans, under the command of General Santa Anna, who had formerly been President of Mexico, and was considered the best soldier of that republic. When Taylor sat down before the city with his force, he sent General Worth's division to plant itself on the enemy's line of retreat. The Americans took first one and then another of the fortified eminences upon the river, and on the 23d of September they fought their way into the streets of the city. These were held by stout barricades and nobly defended, but as Taylor pressed from the east and Worth from the west, the Mexicans were finally obliged to yield.

The winter passed without any brilliant engagement, but in May 1847, Colonel Philip Kearney was ordered to organize an expedition for the occupation of New Mexico and Upper California. He marched into Santa Fe on the 18th of August with eighteen hundred men, and issued a proclamation declaring the inhabitants absolved from their allegiance to Mexico, and organizing the State as a Territory of the

United States. He appointed a civil governor and hastened on to California with a small cavalry force. John C. Fremont, with an exploring expedition, was in California at the time, and was ordered by the Government to see that no foreigners should trespass upon the country; in other words, that the Spaniards and Mexicans should be irritated as much as possible. He learned that the Mexican commandant of California was on the point of expelling some American settlers, and this gave him the excuse for at once assuming the offensive. He captured the city of Sonoma and succeeded in securing independence to



OLDEST HOUSE IN THE UNITED STATES, SANTA FE, NEW MEXICO.

the settlers. Not that they were eager for independence, but the gallant young captain was determined to make American patriots of them, even against their will. Commodore Stockton, who commanded the American fleet, had joined Fremont, taken possession of Los Angeles, and then of Monterey, the capital of California, and set up a provisional government, with himself at the head.

Meanwhile, the Government, considering that Taylor's manner of conducting the war was far too conciliatory, sent General Winfield

Scott to take the chief command and conduct the war in Old Mexico as should seem to him best. He reached Taylor in January of 1847, took ten thousand of Taylor's troops, and left that general not quite seven thousand. News of this reached Santa Anna, and he prepared to strike while his enemy was thus divided. Taylor heard that the Mexicans were approaching in force, and he fell back to a strong position south of Saltillo. Here, among the thin, sharp mountain walls, and the innumerable passes and ravines, is a broad plateau, known now as the Battle Ground of Buena Vista. Taylor had with him in fighting condition but fifty-two hundred men. Santa Anna's force at the very least was twelve thousand. Cavalry, of course, could not be used on ground of this nature, and, indeed, the attacking party could not even get their artillery in position. Taylor placed his men in groups upon the tops of the bluffs near the edge of the plateau. Here they fought through February 22d, and on the 23d renewed the contest. The plateau was mid-way up the mountain, and Santa Anna sent part of his men to descend from the higher bluffs and others to scale the incline from below. Throughout the day the ground was hotly contested. Now a Mexican and now an American column was forced to draw back. As night closed in the result of the day was still undecided, but when morning broke the Americans found that the Mexicans had retreated. They learned later that the Mexican loss was much heavier than their own.

Scott had taken his army to within a few miles of Vera Cruz. Vera Cruz was a strongly fortified city of seven thousand inhabitants. The castle of San Juan de Ulloa stood about a thousand yards off shore on a reef commanding all the channels of the harbor. The Mexicans had supposed that it would be impossible for any boats to reach the city without coming under the guns of this strong castle, but Scott landed his men by means of surf boats, and bombarded the castle for four days. The city and castle surrendered on the 27th.

The capital of Mexico was still two hundred miles distant, but toward this Scott marched as soon as he received the necessary supplies. At Cerro Gordo he was intercepted by the Mexicans, who had taken position on the heights at a strong mountain pass, with a battery commanding every turn of the road. But the Americans climbed up paths which the Mexicans had thought inaccessible and fell upon the enemy's rear, while others bravely contested the pass. The intrenchments were finally carried by storm, and the guns turned upon the rapidly-retreating Mexicans. Santa Anna fled with his men toward



CATCHING WILD HORSES IN TEXAS.

Jalapa. Scott followed him and took the place and waited here for reinforcements, which soon arrived. Santa Anna opened negotiations for peace, and promised to stop fighting if one million dollars was paid to him personally. He wished an installment of ten thousand immediately, and this Scott paid to him. But the Mexican Congress decided that the cause was not yet desperate, and Santa Anna's arrangement was disregarded. Scott, therefore, marched on with his men to the city of Mexico. He found that this was approached by causeways, crossing low and marshy ground, and these causeways were commanded by rocky hills which were strongly fortified. Santa Anna intercepted him and brought about the battle of Contreras. This was fought at the west of the city upon a rugged field of broken lava. The ground was terrible, the artillery and the cavalry almost useless, and even the infantry were injured not a little by falls upon the treacherous and broken crust. The Mexicans were finally surrounded, and many of them were cut down upon the spot, while others escaped through the American lines and took to the mountain paths. Two thousand Mexicans were killed or wounded, and nearly a thousand captured, including four generals. All the stores and ammunition fell into the hands of the Americans, who had lost but sixty in killed and wounded.

Following close upon the battle of Contreras came that of Cherubusco. Here Santa Anna had concentrated his entire force. A large stone convent guarded the bridge, across which the Americans were obliged to pass, and the river at this point was very wide. The Mexicans were prepared to defend the bridge stoutly, having pierced the building for the use of muskets, and surrounded it by a strong field-work. But the Americans approached by ditches and dykes closer and closer, till at last they crossed the moat, scaled the parapet, and won the convent—and the battle of Cherubusco. Their loss, however, had been very heavy.

Scott's next movement was, on September 7th, upon the Molino del Rey (the King's Mill), a group of strong stone buildings, where it was said that the church bells of the city were being cast into cannons. Not far from this stood the castle of Chapultepec, upon the great rock of that name. The buildings were five hundred yards long. They had been barricaded, loop-holed, and provided with sand-bag parapets. Not far from these buildings was the Casa Mata, another strong building prepared for defence. Between these two buildings was a battery, and about them the Mexicans had gathered in force. Scott was located upon the southern side of the city, and, therefore, left

Worth to conduct the siege of these buildings, which were upon the western side of the city. Scott did not himself think the castle of Chapultepec of much importance, and when Worth begged that he might be allowed to take it if possible, Scott refused his request. He therefore prepared his men to take the Molino del Rey, and surrounded that building before daylight in the morning. His orders were to capture the battery, but when the men crept up to the spot where they last saw it, they found it had been moved. A moment later it opened upon their flanks, killing more than half the attacking column. While the Americans were reforming, the Mexicans rushed upon the ground and killed the wounded. But the Americans recovered and charged again. Companies of sharpshooters picked off the gunners and the Mexicans upon the roofs of the buildings. At last the gate of the great yard gave way, and the assailants rushed in, continuing the fight hand-to-hand within the court. A large part of the very best of the American force were slain and the Mexicans were killed in great numbers, the survivors finally retreating to the castle of Chapultepec. The fire was still kept up from Casa Mata, and the Americans approached in the very teeth of the fire, bringing the whole of their artillery to bear upon the walls, forcing the Mexicans to abandon the building. Worth had secured these buildings at a terrible cost, as seven hundred and eighty, out of three thousand five hundred of his troops, had fallen, but in obedience to Scott's positive orders, they were abandoned to the Mexicans.

Later, however, in a council of war, it was determined that the castle of Chapultepec must be reduced before the city could be taken. This castle stands upon a great rock a hundred and fifty feet high. The northern and southern sides of this rock are absolutely inaccessible, and the eastern and a portion of the western nearly so. It is possible to scale the southwestern and western sides. A battery stood in the angle of the long zig-zag road which formed the regular approach to the castle. Strong fortifications were placed upon the rock, and around were ditches, aqueducts and walls. The Molino del Rey was upon the western side, and upon the east two great causeways led into the city of Mexico. Two thousand men, with thirteen heavy guns, defended the place. The Americans tried to reduce it by artillery fire alone, but finding this impossible, a party seized the Molino and occupied it. From here, on the 13th of September, fire was opened upon the castle, and a little later infantry were sent out to advance along the grounds of the great enclosure which extends west of the castle. This western slope was perforated with mines, but the Mexican officer who came out to

explode them was shot down, and the assailants went on to the crest of the hill. This crest, however, they could not climb, and as they had no scaling ladders at hand, they took refuge in the crevices of the rocks, and picked off the Mexicans at the guns. A large number of the Mexicans were letting themselves down the perpendicular rock on the eastern side, and a force was sent around to intercept them, and cut off their retreat. When the scaling ladders arrived, the force upon the west sealed the walls in the midst of a terrible fire and gained the parapet. They then walked across the ditch upon the ladders. Meanwhile, another party had climbed up the southern slope and entered at the great gate. The enemy gave way everywhere and the Americans took possession of the castle. Then they pushed on after the flying enemy into the city, but when they reached the citadel where Santa Anna commanded, they were met with a fire so dreadful that further advance was simply impossible. However, the Americans gained possession of numerous buildings and dragged their howitzers to the roofs where they did destructive work upon the Mexicans below. Night fell with Americans in the city, but the citadel was still unconquered. The Mexicans held a council of war and decided to withdraw their army from the city, liberate the convicts in the prison, arm them, and urge the inhabitants of the city to fight with them from the house-tops. The army was therefore drawn out of the city in the night, and when morning dawned gangs of convicts, deserters, robbers and thieves took the place of the soldiers, fighting with paving stones which had been carried by the thousands to the house-tops in the night. The American artillery was turned upon these houses and the desperate people soon submitted. By the 15th of September, 1848, the city was quiet and in possession of the Americans. Then came the treaty which ended the war, and gave to the United States not only Texas, but New Mexico, California and Arizona.

This year General Taylor, candidate of the Democratic party, was elected President by a large majority over Charles Francis Adams, the nominee of the Free-Soil party.

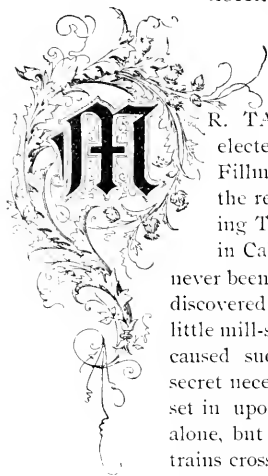
FOR FURTHER READING

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Fremont's "Memoirs."
Scott's "Autobiography."
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J. Clement's "Bernard Lisle."
"Talbot and Vernon." Aton
C. L. Hentz's "The Planter's Northern Bride."
C. L. Hentz's "Lohm."
C. L. Hentz's "Marcus Warland."
POETRY—Charles F. Hoffman's "Monterey."
J. G. Lyon's "Hero of Monterey."
Albert Pike's "Inema Vista."
Whittier's "Angels of Buena Vista."

CHAPTER LXXXIII.

Gold and Iron Chains.

DEATH OF TAYLOR, AND ADMINISTRATION OF MILLARD FILLMORE—
DISCOVERY OF GOLD IN CALIFORNIA—SLAVERY
AGITATION—THE TROUBLE
IN KANSAS.



R. TAYLOR lived but one year after he was elected President, and Vice-President Millard Fillmore, of New York, became President for the remainder of that term—1850 to 1853. During Taylor's administration gold was discovered in California. It is most surprising that it had never been discovered before, and that it should be discovered now quite by accident. It was found in a little mill-stream running from the Sierra Nevada, and caused such excitement that all efforts to keep it secret necessarily failed. A great tide of emigration set in upon California, not from the Eastern States alone, but from all parts of the world. Great wagon trains crossed the desolate plains and the snowy passes of the Rocky Mountains to the land of gold. Many gold seekers went away around Cape Horn, and yet others ventured across the Isthmus of Panama. So rapidly did the population increase that it was not long before the Territory applied to the Union for admission as a State. In the State constitution which was formed, slavery was prohibited forever. President Taylor was a Southern man with slave-holding principles, but he was one who earnestly desired to preserve the union of the States, and in readily granting this constitution to California he hoped that the anti-slavery agitation might be quieted, and the country saved from the conflict to which even the dullest could see it was inevitably drifting.

The Free-Soil party was rapidly gaining strength. Northern Sena-



James Buchanan

tors presented resolutions, whenever there was an opportunity, for the prohibition of slavery in the new Territories, but none of these bills were carried. Mr. Clay, who twice before in the clash of sectional opinions had offered compromises which temporarily allayed the storm, tried once more to act as conciliator. Kentucky was making a new constitution, and Clay suggested that there should be a gradual emancipation of the slaves in that State, and that as they were made free they should be colonized in Africa. But though Clay had been the cherished idol of the Kentucky people, they could not endure this resolution, and he was deserted by the "Fire-eaters," as the slave-holding extremists were now called. Daniel Webster, whom the North had always considered one of its warmest and most eloquent supporters, was guilty at this time of a change of opinion. He supported the compromises of Mr. Clay, perhaps with the hope that he might gain Southern favor—for it must be clearly understood that Mr. Clay's compromises had for their end the quieting of the Northern conscience. It was hoped that these concessions to Northern prejudice would secure the Southern States from further interference. Daniel Webster's attitude was that the Union would be disbanded if the slave-holders were not allowed to have their way. He believed in the preservation of the Union, even at the price of the continuance of slavery. Mr. Calhoun, the third great statesman of that period, was dying, and his influence could no longer be used to uphold the policy of the South.

When Mr. Fillmore took the presidential chair left vacant by the death of Taylor, Mr. Webster was taken into the Cabinet as Secretary of State, and the North knew that it could hope for but little from the Administration. He accepted and signed the compromise without hesitation, and the beginning of his administration is noted for the passage of the fugitive slave law. This gave the owners of slaves permission to recapture their escaped slaves in any part of the free States, and to carry them back without trial by jury. That the slave-holders might meet with no hindrance or annoyance, commissioners were appointed throughout the country who were to decide upon all questions of capture. If they decided that the slave was the property of the man who claimed him, their fees were twice what they were if they decided otherwise. This law was received in the North with horrified indignation. Since every citizen was obliged to prescribe to it, many men refused to take the oath of citizenship or to vote. Others already bound protested that right was greater than law, and that they should simply disregard the enactment. It was a matter in which few could be

passive. Every citizen in the free States was considered as under obligations to capture and return to their masters any negroes found within their territory. The alarm among the colored people was intense. The free negroes knew that there was no legal protection left them, and that any of them at any time might be seized and returned to slavery. They had not dared to count on the strong wave of sympathy which swept the North. A few years before, to be an Abolitionist was to be despised, persecuted, almost outlawed. But now the question was shown to the public in a different light. The Southern States had disregarded Northern wishes, and it occurred to the North that the gospel of State Rights might not apply alone to the States of the South. It had always been urged in the support of slavery; why was it not possible to urge it for the protection of liberty? It was therefore determined by private opinion that the Northern States would do as they pleased about rendering up fugitive slaves. But it was the masses who decided this. The prominent men, with the ministers at their head, protested that the law must be obeyed, and begged the people not to disturb commercial prosperity by any ill-advised sentimentalism.

When attempts were made to capture fugitive slaves, the slave-hunters found that they met with unexpected obstacles. The people of the villages aroused to defend the slaves with arms, not alone from impulses of humanity, but to protect what they deemed their constitutional right. The tables were turned upon the South. State sovereignty put on a new aspect. Not unfrequently slaves were snatched from the court-room and carried away by their friends of the Free-Soil party. But government, whether State or municipal, had no sympathy with these demonstrations.

Boston showed that she intended to have the obnoxious law obeyed. An attempt was made to rescue Antony Burns, a fugitive slave, from the court house. The attack was repelled and one man was killed. The city called out the militia and the marshal joined to these all the United States troops in the vicinity. Antony Burns, a dejected frightened negro, was given back to his master with as much military pomp as might have celebrated the victory of a conqueror. More than one hundred civil officers of Boston, with the poor fugitive in their midst, marched out of the court house in a solid square formed by United States marines and a company of artillery. But this represented only the authority of the law. In the hearts of the people who watched the poor slave as he was taken in the midst of this display to

Long Wharf, there smouldered the protest which makes righteous revolution so much higher than law. No doubt this pitiable rendition of Antony Burns was a good thing for Massachusetts, for now throughout the State there was a righteous anger, as intense as that which animated her when she fought for her own liberty three-quarters of a century before. There, and indeed throughout the North, when law failed, force was resorted to, and the slaves were rescued. When it became necessary for the slaves to fight in their own defense, arms were put into their hands. In some States the use of prisons, and the services of State officers in the arrest of fugitives, were forbidden by State legislation. The South saw that it had gone too far.

Otherwise the administration was not without benefit. Postage was reduced, the agricultural bureau established, the Pacific Railroad begun, and the enlargement of the Capitol started. Those negotiations which opened up Japan to the world were begun. As the time for the election of a new President drew near, the Congressional members for thirty-three States pledged themselves not to support any man for the presidency not opposed to the renewal of the agitation of slavery. John Franklin Pierce, of New Hampshire, was the Democratic candidate. The Whigs held three conventions and nominated for President John Parker Hale, of New Hampshire. The Democrats were successful, and Pierce entered the presidency, pledging himself to do all in his power to preserve silence upon the question of slavery. But he had not been in office six weeks when the agitation was renewed as bitterly as ever by the efforts of the friends of slavery to overthrow the Missouri Compromise. This, it will be remembered, passed in 1820, and prohibited slavery north of a certain line of that great domain which had been bought under the name of Louisiana. It was now proposed to organize, out of that region from which slavery had been thus excluded, two new Territories, to be named Kansas and Nebraska. The inhabitants of these were to have the right to determine for themselves whether they should establish slavery or freedom—"squatter sovereignty," an epigrammatic Senator termed it. This bill passed May 30, 1854, and through the North it awakened an indignation as intense as if a part of the Constitution had been repealed. An invisible line seemed to divide the section between free labor and slavery, and to break over this line seemed treason and sacrilege. The "Northern conscience," of which the South had been so afraid, was aroused at last. The "religious liberty" at which the South sneered was the foundation of their resentment.

The Northwest crowded the new Territories with settlers. The Massachusetts Emigrant Aid Company was formed, holding a capital of five million dollars, and this company took five hundred New England emigrants into Kansas. The slave-holding element of Missouri was alarmed. They could easily see that Kansas was likely to become a free-labor State beyond the power of legislature to hinder. It was not easy for a slave-holder to prepare a plantation and move his army of negroes into the doubtful Territory. But the men of the North and the West, adaptable, industrious and enterprising, seized the opportunity to settle upon fertile lands, which could be had for nothing, or next to it, with avidity. But whenever a party reached the line which divides Missouri from Kansas, they were met with strong opposition by the reckless and brutal men of that region, known as "Border Ruffians." These tried in vain to check the stream of emigration. Meetings of men in the slave interest were held in Missouri, in which they pledged themselves to remove any and all emigrants who should go to Kansas under the auspices of the emigrant aid societies, and the frequent outrages on the Missouri line testified how ambitious they were to keep their word. W. H. Reeder, of Pennsylvania, was appointed Governor of the Territory, and arrived in Kansas in October, 1854. Most of the emigrants settled at Lawrence, or near there, for the reason that the title of the land there was clear, whereas at that time much of the Kansas territory had a doubtful title, as the Indians had not yet given up their claims to the land.

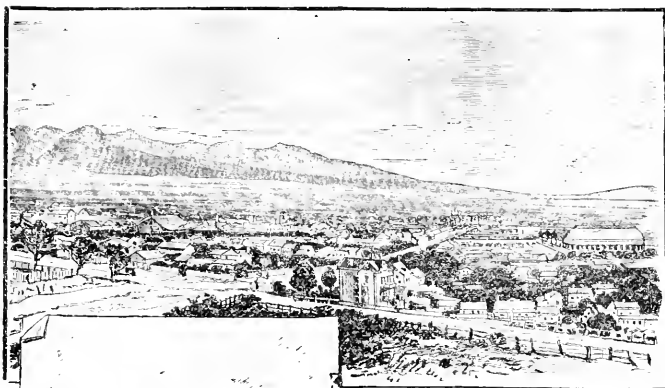
FOR FURTHER READING:

- FICTION**—R. Hildreth's "White Slave."
 Holt's "Abraham Page."
 J. Hungerford's "The Old Plantation."
 J. H. Ingraham's "Sunny South."
 Mrs. Jeffrey's "Woodburn."
 M. Lennox's "Ante-Bellum."
 Logan's "The Master's House."
 M. J. McIntosh's "The Lofly and the Lowly."
 Miss Palfrey's "Herman."
 Mrs. Stowe's "Uncle Tom's Cabin."
 G. W. Peck's "Auriferous."
 W. W. Brown's "Clatella."
 Mrs. Cross' "Azile."
 W. Adams' "The Sable Cloud."
 W. F. Adams' "Hatchie."

CHAPTER LXXXIV.

The Truth Goes Marching On.

SACKING OF LAWRENCE—JOHN BROWN AND THE DESTRUCTION OF
OSSAWOTTOMIE—ELECTION OF BUCHANAN—ASSAULT ON
SUMNER—THE MORMONS—ELECTION OF LINCOLN.



SALT LAKE CITY, UTAH.



MORMON TEMPLE.

AS soon as Kansas ventured to prepare for an election, an army of Missourians invaded her territory and cast votes for the candidate of the slave-holding interest. More ballots, indeed, were cast for the Democratic ticket than there were voters in the State. As the governor would not countenance these outrages, he was removed, and a man who could be depended upon to wink at

Sumner, Senator from Massachusetts, delivered on two days a speech which he called, when published, the "Crime Against Kansas." It was replied to by four different Senators, who, prompted by the bitterness and insolence which the time seemed to provoke in all, used expressions and indulged in abuse of which the Senate chamber had previously been guiltless. Mr. Sumner retaliated with indignation and even fierceness. Two days later, after the Senate adjourned, and he was sitting at his desk writing, Preston S. Brooks, a representative from South Carolina, approached him and said: "I have read your speech twice over carefully; it is a libel on South Carolina." He hit Mr. Sumner over the head with a heavy stick till he fell to the floor bleeding. For four years the State of Massachusetts was represented by his empty chair, while he was in Europe trying to recover his health. The act itself might have passed simply as the attack of a brutal man, and been thought no more of, but for the reason that the House and Senate sympathized largely with the assailant. Brooks, with an insolent speech, resigned from the House, but was returned at once by his constituents and received the congratulations of many. He died soon after, and an eulogy was pronounced upon him in the House. This showed plainly to the Liberty party of the North the trend which affairs were taking, and helped to swell the tide of resistance to Southern rule. Mr. Buchanan was another of those men who, though born in the North, were willing to sustain the Southern policy. His first message assured the country that the discussion of slavery had come to an end.

Following close upon this address came the decision of Judge Taney in the Dred Scott case. Scott claimed that he had been removed from Missouri to Illinois in 1834, and taken into territory north of the compromise line; that in 1838 he had been taken back into Missouri and sold again to his present master. He protested that he and his children were free, but his master maintained that Scott, being a negro, was not a citizen of Missouri and could not bring an action. The lower courts differed, and the case was brought before the United States Court. Here it was twice argued, and Chief Justice Taney gave it as the decision of the court, that the black men could not be citizens; that they could only be treated as property, and that they had no right which the white man was bound to respect. The most conservative in the North were startled by this decision into a radicalism which they had not before thought themselves capable of.

In the midst of these troubles a wave of great financial depression swept over the country. Commerce and enterprise had been developing

at an abnormal rate, and the system of credit had been perilously wide. The prosperity proved to be an apple of Sodom, which, when crushed, gave out only a puff of dust.

In this same year the Government took exception to the views held by the Mormons, and the President removed their Governor, Brigham Young, who was also the Prophet of their Church, and appointed a Gentile. This plan has always been followed since. The Mormons have converted the once arid desert of Utah into a very paradise, and every traveler is astonished to find such a beautiful and thriving country; and here, again, is to be found one of the wonders of the world—the Great Salt Lake. The summer of this year was marked by the first telegraphic message which ever passed from America to Europe. This cable was laid by private enterprise, and neither the Governments of England or the United States can take any credit to themselves.

In the summer of 1858 John Brown came into prominence. Every few years there arises somewhere in the world a man whom criticism calls a fanatic and whom posterity recognizes as a martyr. In truth, Brown was both. The contending theories of politicians, the tedious delays of the law and of Government and the shameless procrastination which was shown by the Administration, lashed him into resistance. He was of Puritan blood, and had in him the Puritan devotion to duty and principle. He had seen the suffering of the people of Kansas, who were laboring for freedom, and had himself suffered from the outrages of the border ruffians. One son had been killed and another driven insane by these men, and he meant to devote his life to aid, so far as he could, the extermination of slavery and the punishment of the slaveholder. Like many another reformer a strain of madness mingled with his devotion. He believed that he was God's messenger. Early in the year he had called together in Canada a quiet convention of the "True Friends of Freedom," and had prepared a provisional constitution for the people of the United States. He had been well acquainted in his youth with the mountains of Virginia, and it seemed to him that they were made to be the stronghold of an army—an idea which Washington had held before him. His plan was now to get the slaves to join him; to retreat to these mountains and hold them until the slaves from all over the land flocked to his standard and let him lead them to liberty. George L. Stearns secured him arms and gave him four hundred dollars. Brown went to Maryland and established himself at Harper's Ferry. On the 16th of October, 1859, he took possession of the United States Armory and buildings at Harper's Ferry, stopped railroad trains, and held the town



CAPTURE OF JOHN BROWN IN THE ENGINE HOUSE.

with a force of fourteen white men and four negroes. He would doubtless have escaped had he not been too considerate of the feelings of the families of the men whom he kept as hostages. On their account he delayed, and United States troops, under the command of Colonel Robert E. Lee, soon surrounded his little force and compelled it to retire to the engine house. Here Brown's band fought desperately. Thirteen of them were killed or mortally wounded, and among them two of Brown's sons. He defied danger with perfect coolness, and one of his prisoners describes him as feeling the pulse of his dying son with one hand, and holding his rifle with the other, all the while encouraging his men. After his capture he was put on trial before a Virginian court, and behaved with such fortitude, self-forgetfulness and dignity that even his enemies admired him. He was condemned and hanged December 2, 1859, at Charleston, Virginia, stopping on the way to the scaffold to kiss a little slave child. Six of his comrades were hung the next day. A few others, who had been on duty outside of the town at the time of Brown's capture, escaped to the mountains and thence to the free States.

The South was in a ferment. It was generally understood that should the Republicans succeed in electing their candidate in the next campaign, that it would be the signal for secession. At this campaign there were in the field the Democratic party, the advocates of secession, the Constitutional Union National party—made up of the remnants of the old Whig and American parties, who hoped both to avoid war and preserve the Union—and the Republican party. Abraham Lincoln was the candidate of the last named party, and he was elected by the largest popular vote ever given for any President. Very glad was Mr. Buchanan to resign his place to some one who would take the responsibility of meeting the great questions of the hour. Mr. Lincoln was a man of very moderate opinions in regard to slavery, and he said often in public speeches, that he did not approve of abolishing slavery in the States where it was already established by law. But notwithstanding this, his election was looked on as very dangerous for the slave States, and his inauguration was the signal for disunion.

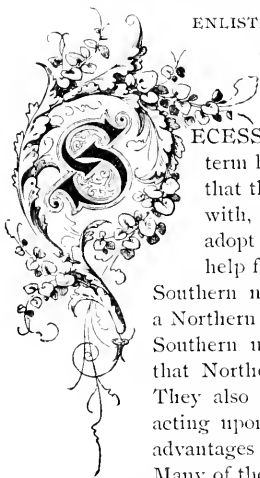
FOR FURTHER READING.

- BIOGRAPHY—Nickolay and Hay's "Life of Lincoln."
 Drew's "John Brown's Invasion."
 FICTION—J. W. De Forest's "Kate Beaumont."
 Mrs. Dupuy's "The Planter's Daughter."
 J. R. Gilmore's "Among the Pines."
 J. R. Hatemann's "Dead Men's Shoes."
 S. J. Hale's "Northwood."
 POETRY—Phoebe Cary's "John Brown."
 E. C. Stedman's "Ossawatimie Brown."
 Edna D. Proctor's "The Virginia Scaffold."

CHAPTER LXXXV.

"We Are Gearing, Father Abraham."

SECESSION—THE SOUTHERN CONFEDERACY—ATTACK ON FORT SUM-
TER—THE FIRST CALL FOR TROOPS—THE THREE YEARS'
ENLISTMENT—THE BATTLE
OF BULL RUN.



SECESSION was begun before President Buchanan's term had expired. It is putting it mildly to say that the Secessionists were confident. To begin with, they believed that since they were ready to adopt a free-trade policy, they could rely upon help from England. They also believed that a Southern man would be much more than a match for a Northern one in war, and it was quite true that the Southern men were used to arms and to horses and that Northern men, as a class, were used to neither. They also counted upon the fact that they would be acting upon the defensive, and would have all the advantages which such a mode of warfare entails. Many of them united to form a large secret society and called themselves the Knights of the Golden Circle. The members were numerous and had much influence in all that followed.

South Carolina took the lead in withdrawing from the Union, and a convention was called in that State, which, on December 20, 1860, adopted an ordinance of secession. Within six weeks like conventions were held and like votes passed in the States of Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana and Texas. These States then formed themselves into what was called the Southern Confederacy, and on February 8, 1861, elected Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, as President, and Alexander H. Stephens, of Georgia, as Vice-President. Virginia was reluctant for some time to vote for secession, but her wealth depended almost entirely upon the raising of slaves for the cotton States. Should the cotton States organize themselves into a successful confed-

eracy, and Virginia be left out, it was evident that her prosperity would suffer, for one of the articles of the constitution of the Confederacy was that the seceding States should hold no commercial intercourse with other States.



JEFFERSON DAVIS IN 1861.

President Buchanan seemed to have his judgment paralyzed. He did, indeed, say that the States had no right to secede, but he also declared that the Constitution gave him no power to coerce them. Even when the authorities in South Carolina claimed possession of all

the national property in the State, Buchanan remained inactive. Major Robert Anderson, who commanded the garrison of Fort Moultrie, in Charleston harbor, seeing that he could expect no help from the Government, removed his force, on Christmas night, 1860, to Fort Sumpter.

The men of the South were gathered in large numbers in Charleston, and General G. T. Beauregard was put in command of the Confederate forces. His first act was to erect batteries for the destruction of Fort Sumpter. Anderson was not a strong Unionist, and though he did his duty—or partly did it—his heart was not in the matter. He permitted the Confederates to visit his fort, and to examine all of his preparations. When Beauregard was ready for attack he refused all privileges of communication between Charleston and the fort, and demanded a surrender. To provision the fort, the steamer *Star of the West* was sent in January, 1861, but before she could reach her destination she was driven off by the fire from the Confederate batteries. Mr. Lincoln had been in office one month when he sent a fleet to the relief of Fort Sumpter. Again General Beauregard demanded surrender. This was refused, and the batteries opened fire upon the fort early the next morning. The fire lasted for two days, and at midnight of the second day Major Anderson surrendered the fort. It was full of stifling smoke, his men were worn out, the barracks were on fire and his gunpowder almost gone. He was allowed to march out with the honors of war, and on April 14th he did so, firing his last powder away in saluting the United States flag with fifty guns.

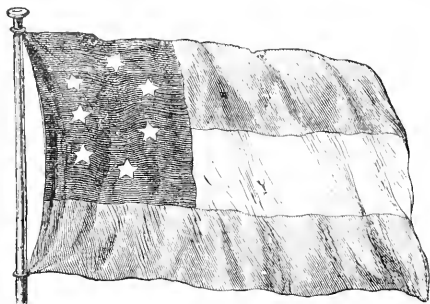
The men of both parties watched with deep interest the action of the various States. The Union had been swelled by three States during Buchanan's administration—Minnesota, Oregon and Kansas. These were added to the power of the North. Eight slave States, at the time of the fall of Sumpter, still remained in the Union; seven had gone out. Virginia soon joined these. Arkansas and North Carolina followed. Kentucky refused to secede, although she sent many men to the Confederate army. Maryland remained in the Union, although for some time it was thought that she would stand by the South. In the mountainous regions of Western North Carolina and Eastern Tennessee, there was a strong Union element, and the people of these counties asked to be separated peaceably from the rest of their respective States and allowed to remain in the Union. The persecution which this request was met with at the hands of the Secessionists drove many of the people from their homes. The people west of the Alleghany

Mountains, in Virginia, did, however, form a State of their own and remained in the Union, calling their State West Virginia, and selecting Wheeling as their capital. In a short time it was admitted into the Union.

On the day when Sumpter fell, President Lincoln called for militia from the several States of the Union to the number of seventy-five thousand. It was met with a response quicker and more cordial than even he had dared to hope for. A fever of patriotism took possession of the North. Every village seemed draped with the national flag. Every man who could possibly leave his home offered his services. Every loyal newspaper flung a flag above its headline. The very stationery was patriotic in the tri-colors of the Republic. Many of the most influential Democrats now came out on the side of the Union. These were called War Democrats. Those who lived in the North, and yet reviled the Government and the policy which dictated the war, were named "Copperheads," after the snake of that name. In every village there were barracks, where the recruits were stationed until they could be marched off to Washington, after a hasty drilling by some officer who knew almost as little as they about the tactics of war. Ephraim E. Ellsworth, a young man of Chicago, excited the ardent admiration of the recruits by displaying his excellently trained company of zouaves, and many were quick to follow his example. Among the first men to respond to the President's call were the 6th Massachusetts, which started within two days after the summons. When they reached Baltimore a great mob of Secessionists collected about them and began stoning them. The mob carried a Secession flag, and hurled epithets at the soldiers as freely as they did paving stones. Several pistol shots were fired from the windows, and a number of soldiers hit. The Mayor of the city walked at the head of the soldiers, in the hope that his presence would afford some protection. But as the mob grew more uncontrollable the Mayor seized a musket and shot one of the leaders. With the aid of a large number of policemen, the soldiers succeeded in getting through the city, and the three young militiamen that had been killed were sent home to their native State. After this the troops avoided Baltimore when possible in passing on their way to Washington.

Excitement grew in the North. An immense meeting was held in New York City, and a Union Defence Committee appointed to hasten the equipment of troops and the furnishing of ships and money. Under their engagement troops were soon pouring into Washington, which was defended by General Winfield Scott. On the 24th of May four

regiments crossed the Potomac and took possession of Arlington Heights, which command Washington. One regiment, recruited from the New York Fire Department and commanded by the gallant young Ellsworth, went by way of Alexandria. While passing through the



THE CONFEDERATE FLAG.

city Ellsworth discovered a secession flag flying over the principal hotel. With two soldiers, he went to the top of the house, tore down the flag, and was returning to the street, when the proprietor of the house killed him with a shotgun. One of Ellsworth's companions retaliated instantly by killing the proprietor. It was a

dramatic incident, which appealed well to the sentiments of the young men of the country. Ellsworth had looked every inch a hero, and upon his death he certainly was made one. His picture was displayed everywhere and special regiments were formed and dedicated to the work of avenging his death. Another of the distinguished young men of the North who was killed at the very opening of the war was Theodore Winthrop, the young scholar and writer. He was sent on an unfortunate expedition against a Secession force at Big Bethel, and was killed there by a North Carolina drummer boy.

The seventy-five thousand troops which President Lincoln had called forth were three months' men, and it soon became apparent that secession in the South was not to be stopped in three months, nor in six. On May 3, 1861, the President issued another proclamation, calling for forty-two thousand volunteers for three years, and authorizing the raising of ten new regiments for the regular army. He also called for eighteen thousand volunteer seamen for the navy. But as the clouds gathered, Lincoln made a third call for men on the 4th of July, and Congress gave him authority to call for five hundred thousand men, and five hundred million dollars. The people were more than prompt in their response, but they over-valued the raw troops which then swarmed to Washington. They believed that because the men felt like fighting, that they knew how to do it. Every paper in the North cried, "On to Richmond!" The impatience for war had its effect.

General Beauregard commanded the Confederate army nearest Washington, and defended the river of Bull Run, occupying a line eight miles long, facing towards Washington. General Scott's plan was to launch an army against Beauregard, turn his right flank, seize the railroads in the rear of his position and defeat him. General Joseph Johnston had a large number of Confederates in the Shenandoah valley. It was most important that this army should not be allowed to come to the help of Beauregard, and General Robert Patterson was given strict orders to prevent such a movement. Scott intrusted the immediate command of this exploit to General McDowell, a graduate of West Point, who had seen service in the Mexican War. There was a thorough confidence in Washington that McDowell would win, but the optimists did not take into consideration the lack of discipline in the army, nor the spies that filled the Washington departments, and sent word of every plan and movement to the Confederates. A large number of members of Congress followed in the rear of the army to witness the battle. One of them, John A. Logan, of Illinois, left his seat in the capital, shouldered a musket and joined in the ranks. The troops were soon upon the banks of Bull Run, although there had been some difficulty in getting them there, as they had a boyish way of stopping to pick berries or search for a drink of water as their impulses prompted. As they advanced, the enemy's out-posts fell back, and at Blackburn's Ford the Union troops met with their first opposition. The artillery was kept briskly going from both sides, and at last the infantry became engaged at this point, when both columns retreated with a loss of about sixty men on each side. McDowell gave up the plan of turning Beauregard's right flank, finding that he was very strongly intrenched at that point, and the two days which followed the engagement at Blackburn's Ford were spent in searching for a ford where a column could cross and protect the passage of the army. General Patterson did not succeed in keeping Johnston penned in the Shenandoah valley, and that general had joined Beauregard with a portion of his forces. McDowell did not know this, and crossed the stream with his force as soon as possible. The battle ground was a plateau thinly wooded and crossed by a small stream that flowed into Bull Run. The enemy were slowly driven back through this grove under a most destructive fire, but General Thomas J. Jackson and his men stood immovable upon the spot where they were posted, and won for General Jackson the name of "Stonewall." But as the Confederate line fell back, it gained higher ground, which placed the Union troops at a disadvantage. Jackson and

his men fell upon the Union right, and broke the troops. A terrible panic followed, and the troops swarmed back toward Washington in mad haste. The Congressmen in their carriages, the soldiers without their guns, the drivers of army wagons without their wagons and



"STONEWALL" JACKSON.

charging to the backs of their horses, rushed back together in a confusion so headlong that it would have been comical if it had not been tragic. The loss of the Confederates was about one thousand nine hundred; that of the Nationals about one thousand five hundred in

killed and wounded, and as many more in prisoners. But this victory was not so helpful to the Confederates as the people of the North imagined it would be. It disorganized the Confederate army more than defeat would have done, for the Southern volunteers thought that their cause was gained, and many of them went to their homes.

Later in the year there was a smaller battle at Ball's Bluff, in which the National troops were also unsuccessful.

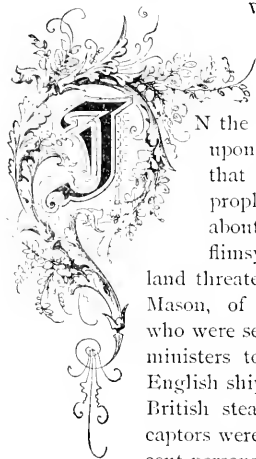
FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY**—Fry's "McDowell and Tyler at Bull Run."
 Doubleday's "Forts Sumpter and Moultrie."
 Abbot's "Blue Jackets of '61."
FICTION—J. H. Aughey's "The Iron Furnace."
 Mr. Kenick's "Millicent Halford."
POETRY—G. H. Baker's "Poems of the War."
 Mrs. Warfield's "Battle of Bull Run."
 Julia Ward Howe's "Battle Hymn of the Republic."
 A. G. H. Dugarme's "Bethel."
 Richard Realf's "Apocalypse."

CHAPTER LXXXVI.

The Union Forever.

ATTITUDE OF FOREIGN POWERS—BOMBARDMENT OF THE FORTS AT
HATTERAS INLET—CONQUEST OF CHARLESTON HARBOR—
THE CAMPAIGN WEST OF THE ALLEGHANIES—GRANT
AT FORTS HENRY AND DONELSON—THE
WAR IN MISSOURI.



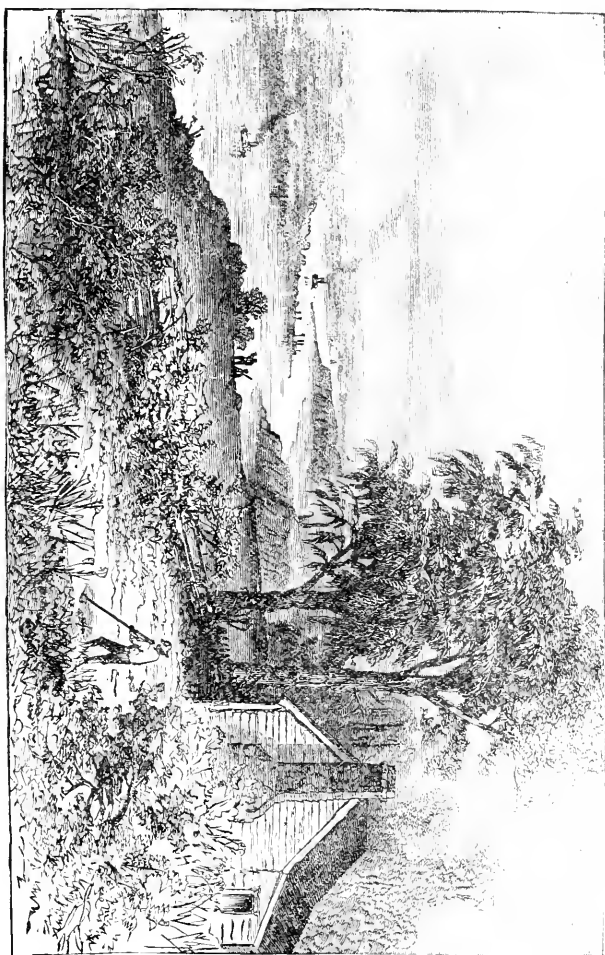
IN the Old World the American conflict was looked upon with satisfaction. Many were glad to see that the Republic, which they had always prophesied would end in failure and confusion, was about to fulfill the prophesy. France, upon a flimsy excuse, sent an army into Mexico. England threatened war because two gentlemen, James M. Mason, of Virginia, and John Slidell, of Louisiana, who were sent out by the Confederate Government as ministers to London and Paris, were taken from an English ship and returned to their own country. The British steamer was allowed to go on, because the captors were not willing to cause inconvenience to innocent persons. England demanded an apology and the return of the two men taken from her steamer. The Secretary of State, William H. Seward, sent a masterly letter to England, which, while it offered no apology, and, indeed, defended the capture of the ministers, nevertheless satisfied the English nation and averted war. The commissioners were released and allowed to sail for England, but their purpose had been practically thwarted. England continued, however, to sympathize with the insurgents. Her leading journals congratulated the Southerners upon their courage in upholding their rights. The Russian Government alone was friendly to the United States.

The Presidents who preceded Lincoln and the Cabinets which sustained them had systematically closed their ears and eyes to all that promised war, and now that the United States found itself confronted with the probabilities of a long conflict, she was poorly prepared. Her vessels were for the most part in foreign waters, and it was many months before news could reach them and bring them home. Only twelve vessels were in port—four in Northern and eight in Southern ports. Three hundred of the navy who had been educated for services in the United States went over to the Confederacy, as did a large number of those educated at West Point for the army—among them some of the best generals of the war. To establish itself on the seas, the Government bought all sorts of merchant crafts, and had gunboats built as hastily as possible. It was necessary to get vessels in sufficient quantity to secure the blockade of the Southern ports, but this was never made so secure that blockade runners did not frequently defy it. The Confederate Government enacted a law providing that a portion of every cargo brought into its ports must consist of arms and ammunition. Thus the Southern soldier was always well supplied with the best weapons which English arsenals could produce. The Confederates sent out cotton, tobacco and rice in payment for these. To shut off this trade was the ambition of the Federal Government. To do this, it was necessary to sustain a complete blockade of Southern ports. An expedition was fitted out at Hampton Roads, commanded by Flag-officer Silas H. Stringham. It numbered ten vessels and carried one hundred and fifty-eight guns. Two of these vessels were transport steamers having on board nine hundred troops, commanded by General Benjamin F. Butler. It sailed on the 26th of August, 1861, with sealed orders, and arrived at its destination, Hatteras Inlet, before sunset, anchoring off the bar. Early in the morning an attempt was made to land the troops, but the surf was so heavy that the powder was damaged and the lives of the men endangered, and only about one-third of the troops were landed. Two forts had been erected to protect Hatteras Inlet, and the project was to capture them. They were garrisoned by about six hundred men, but were not very strongly built. The troops that landed took possession of the smaller work, and the fleet bombarded the larger one. At the end of three hours the larger fort surrendered, and in the meantime the smaller one had been taken possession of without difficulty. Seven hundred prisoners were taken and sent to New York. Not a man was lost among the Federal forces. Garrisons were left to protect the place, and a coaling station was established for the blockading fleet.

By the last of October a much larger expedition sailed from Hampton Roads. It consisted of more than fifty vessels, and was commanded by Flag-officer Samuel F. Dupont. It had not long been out when it was scattered by a terrible gale. One transport vessel was completely wrecked; one threw over her battery and another her cargo, and one store ship was lost. It was some time before the fleet got together again. Then it was joined by some frigates which were blockading Charleston harbor, and all sailed for Port Royal, arriving on the 5th and 6th of November. The entrance to the harbor was protected by two earthworks, Fort Walker and Fort Beauregard. On the 7th of November the order of battle was formed. The fleet steamed steadily by Fort Walker, pouring shells and rifle shot into it. The fort made a gallant defence, but could not prevent the ships from turning and steaming out again, delivering a yet hotter fire. Three times the boats passed and repassed the fort; then the *Bienbelle* sailed yet closer and delivered a fire that dismounted several guns, and worked dreadful destruction in the fort. The gunboats were sweeping it with their fire, and at last the troops were seen pouring out of the fort in a panic. The Federalists sent a flag of truce on shore, but no one remained in the fort to receive it and the national colors were raised. The troops were then debarked and put in possession of both forts, repairing and strengthening the works. Thus the Government obtained a permanent foothold on the soil of South Carolina.

West of the mountains, the year 1862 opened with some lively work. A large Confederate force of Kentuckians had gathered at Paintville. These were attacked by Colonel James A. Garfield, in command of one thousand eight hundred infantry and three hundred cavalry. They were driven out of Paintville and finally forced into another engagement. At last they retreated in the night, leaving their dead on the field. A few months before this there had been an engagement west of the mountains in which the loss was greater. This was called the battle of Mill Springs, and was fought at the head of steamboat navigation on the Cumberland. General George H. Thomas was in command of the Federalists, and General George B. Crittenden was in command of the Confederates. The battle began early on the morning of January 19, 1862. It was fiercely fought through the day, and by night the Confederates took refuge in their intrenchments. In the morning they managed to cross the Cumberland, leaving their wounded, horses, mules, wagons and some of their guns behind them. Two Confederate regiments disbanded and scattered to their homes, for the men, being

new to war, were easily discouraged. Thomas received the thanks of



BIRTHPLACE OF CLYDE S. GRANT.

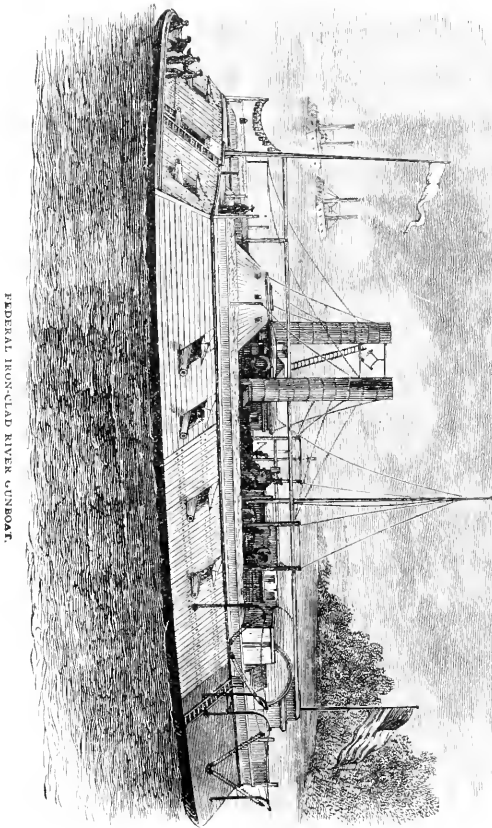
the President for his victory. The Confederates lost nearly twice as

many in killed and wounded as the Federals. The progress of the conflict at the West had so far been quite encouraging to the Union sympathizers.

When General Henry W. Halleck was placed in command of the Department of the Missouri, in November, 1861, he divided it into districts, giving to General Ulysses S. Grant the district of Cairo, which included Southern Illinois, the counties of Missouri south of Cape Girardeau, and all of Kentucky that lie west of the Cumberland river. The Cumberland and the Tennessee rivers are about ten miles apart where they enter Tennessee, and here, to command them, the Confederates placed two forts—Fort Henry, on the east bank of the Tennessee, and Fort Jefferson, on the west bank of the Cumberland. They had also fortified the high bluffs at Columbus, on the Mississippi, twenty miles below the mouth of the Ohio, and Bowling Green, on the Big Barren. General Grant asked permission to capture Fort Henry, and after considerable delay Halleck gave his consent. This fort was garrisoned by three thousand men, under General Lloyd Tilghman. It was not a strong work, bags of sand being largely used instead of solid earth embankment, but its position was fortunate. About it were ravines, through which little streamlets reached the river, and these were filled with timber and rifle pits. On the land side lay low, swampy ground. A fleet of iron-clad gunboats had been prepared by the United States Government for service on the western rivers, and on the morning of February 2, 1862, a fleet of four iron-clad and two wooden gunboats, commanded by Flag-officer Andrew H. Foote, steamed up the Tennessee until it was within sight of the fort. When it was within six hundred yards, a bombardment was opened, to which the guns of the fort promptly replied. The fire was kept up for an hour, and one of the boats, the *Essex*, received a shot in her boiler, by which many men were scalded or wounded. The heavy fire from the gunboats had telling effect upon the fort. The flag-staff was brought down, seven guns dismounted, and the sand-bags knocked out of place. At last a rifle gun in the fort burst. All but about one hundred of the garrison fled, and General Tilghman was left with a single company of artillerists. He served a gun with his own hands as long as possible and then surrendered.

The Confederates, fearing that Fort Donelson would be the next point of attack, withdrew their force from Bowling Green, and joined it to that in Fort Donelson. National troops immediately took possession of Bowling Green and General Grant laid siege to Fort Donel-

son. This fort was on high ground, and enclosed one hundred acres. The land side was protected by slashed timber and rifle-pits, and there was a strong water battery on the lower river front. Within the fort



FEDERAL IRON-CLAD RIVER GUNBOAT.

were twenty thousand men, commanded by General John B. Floyd. On February 12th Grant chose his positions around Fort Donelson and the next morning opened fire. After both sides had used their artillery

for some time, an attempt was made to storm the works, which was unsuccessful. A dismal storm of sleet and snow set in. The gunboats and the troops with them had not yet arrived to Grant's assistance, and his men were obliged to sleep that night in the storm with the scantiest rations. Next morning the gunboats appeared, landed the troops and supplies, and then moved up to attack the water batteries. The fight that followed was a desperate one. The defense of the fort was managed with skill and bravery and the gunboats suffered terribly. At last the boats were so torn and weakened that they were obliged to drop down the stream out of the fight. At a council of war held within the fort that night it was decided to attack the besiegers in the morning with the entire force, and daylight had barely broken when the fighting was begun. It soon extended all along the line. The right wing of the National army was borne back, and the Confederate cavalry tried to gain their rear. Grant waited, with his usual calmness, until the attack was at its height. He then ordered a sudden counter-attack, and Generals Lew Wallace and C. F. Smith dashed forward, swept the works with their field guns, drove out the defenders, and took possession of the ground which they had previously lost. The night which followed was a bitter one, and the wounded could be but poorly cared for. A large number of the men within the fort took advantage of the darkness to hasten up the river to Nashville. In the morning a white flag was hung out, and a letter sent to Grant asking that commissioners be appointed to arrange terms of capitulation. Grant's reply was: "No terms other than an unconditional and immediate surrender can be accepted. I propose to move immediately upon your works." The commander of the fort surrendered, and Grant's decisive and imperturbable words gave a feeling of security to the whole North. The people felt that there was at least one general in the field who accepted no compromises; who knew what he wanted and how to get it. The long artificial line of defence from the mountains to the Mississippi was now swept away.

In Missouri, there had been, since the very first opening of the war, a continual warfare. It was kept up between half-organized bodies of men who met by chance, and frequently dispersed after the encounter. Colonel James A. Mulligan held Lexington gallantly against the Confederates there in the autumn of 1861, and Halleck's men did some good work later in capturing newly-recruited Confederate regiments. A large number of these, under General Van Dorn, were in the north-western part of Arkansas. Some of the Union troops crossed the line

into Arkansas, chose a strong place on Pea Ridge, in the Ozark Mountains, and awaited attack. On March 8, 1862, Van Dorn moved to attack the Union troops, which were formed in a line on the bluffs along the creek facing southward. The battle lasted all day with heavy loss, but without much change of position, and on the following day it was renewed, and the Confederates finally put to rout. The Union loss was over thirteen hundred, the Confederate loss unknown. The nature of the ground was such that pursuit of Van Dorn's forces was impossible. A large number of Cherokee Indians had been engaged upon the side of the Confederates, but they could not stand the artillery, and contenting themselves with a few scalps, hurried from the field.

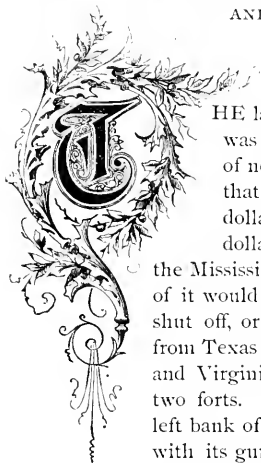
FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY**—Nickolay's "Outbreak of the Rebellion "
Glazier's "Battles for the Union "
Headley's "Grant and Sherman "
FICTION—W. Bradshaw's "Angel of the Battle Field,"
E. Z. C. Judson's "Rattlesnake,"
E. Z. C. Judson's "Sardis."
POETRY—H. H. Brownell's "War Lyrics,"
"Capture of Fort Donelson "

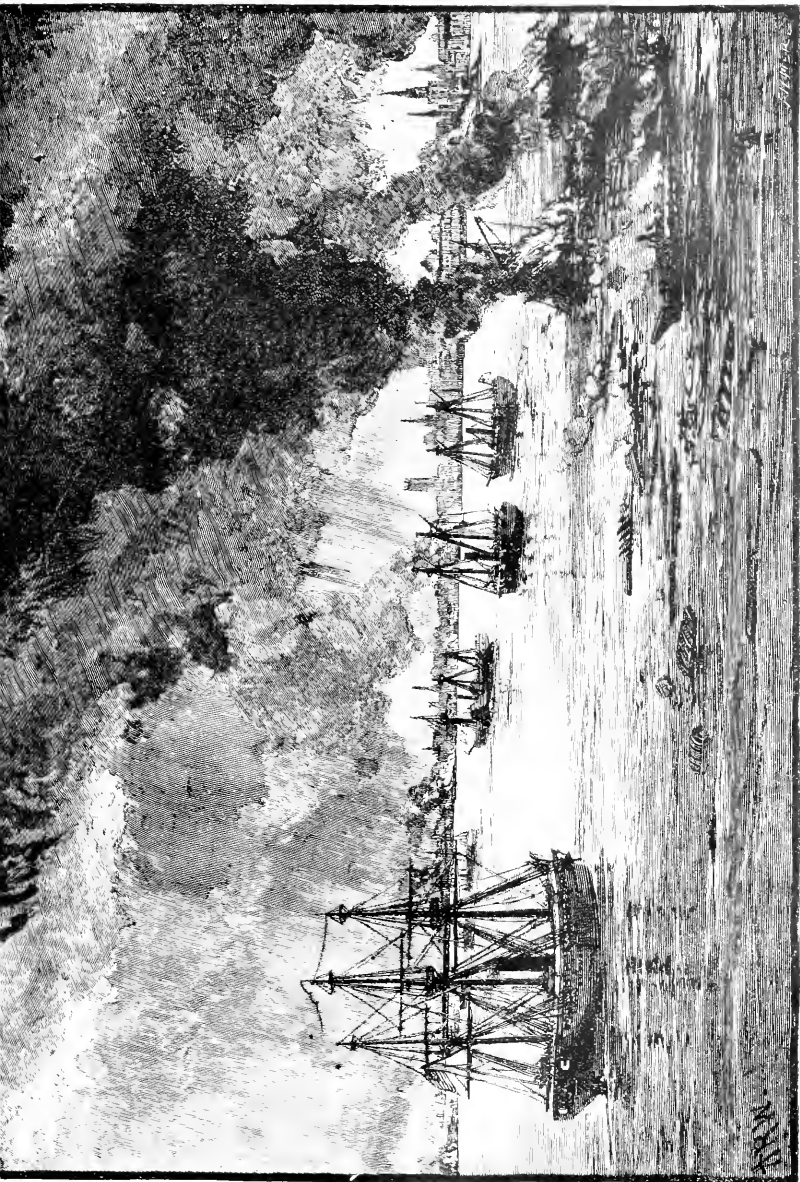
CHAPTER LXXXVII.

With Shot and Shell.

THE CAPTURE OF NEW ORLEANS—FIGHT BETWEEN THE "MONITOR"
AND THE "MERRIMAC."



THE largest city in the territory of the Confederates was New Orleans. In 1860, it had a population of nearly one hundred and seventy thousand. In that same year it shipped twenty-five million dollars' worth of sugar, and ninety-two million dollars' worth of cotton. Moreover, it commanded the Mississippi, and it was easy to see that the possession of it would strike a great blow at the Confederacy, and shut off, or at least make it difficult to bring, supplies from Texas and Arkansas to feed the armies in Tennessee and Virginia. Between the sea and New Orleans were two forts. The smaller—Fort St. Philip—was on the left bank of the river, and was built of earth and brick, with its guns in plain sight on the top. The other—Fort Jackson—on the right bank, mounted seventy-five guns, fourteen of which were in bomb-proof casemates. The forts were garrisoned by about fifteen hundred men, commanded by General Johnson K. Duncan. A fleet of fifteen vessels, including an iron-clad ram, and a large floating battery, covered with railroad iron, protected them. Just below the forts a heavy chain was stretched across the river, supported by hulks anchored at intervals across the stream. Two hundred sharpshooters were placed upon the banks to give warning to the forts of the approach of any foe, or pick off any seen upon the decks. It was thought by Admiral David D. Porter that these forts might be reduced by throwing enormous shells into them, which should explode on striking. At his suggestion, twenty-one great mortars were cast and mounted on as many schooners. They threw shells thirteen inches in diameter, weighing two hundred and eighty-five pounds. The noise



ADMIRAL FARRAGUT AND HIS VICTORIOUS SQUADRON ARRIVES AT NEW ORLEANS.

when they were fired was so great that the gunners were absolutely deafened, and platforms had to be prepared at some distance, to which the gunners could leap just before firing. In addition to the schooners which carried the mortars, were six sloops of war, sixteen gunboats and five other vessels, besides transports carrying fifteen thousand troops, commanded by General B. F. Butler. The flag-ship of the fleet was the *Hartford*, a wooden steam sloop of war, two hundred and twenty-five feet long. It was the most powerful expedition that ever sailed under the American flag, and the man who commanded it was Captain David G. Farragut, who was quite unknown to the American public, although he was one of the oldest men in the navy. It was said that he could fill the place of any man in the fleet, and that there was no possible accident or contingency on shipboard which he could not cope with as well as any man living.

It was late in March when the fleet went in by Pass a l'Ouvre. The masts of the mortar schooners were trimmed off with bushes, so that they could not be told from the trees on shore, and were moored in the woods. A careful computation was made by which an effective fire could be sent from the mortars without the gunners seeing what they fired at, and, beginning on April 18, a steady bombardment was kept up for six days and nights. Six thousand shells—eight hundred tons of iron—were thrown in and around the forts, where they worked the most terrible destruction. But they did not silence the guns, and the forts held out bravely. In the midst of the bombardment, the Confederates sent several flatboats, loaded with dry wood, smeared with tar and turpentine and blazing furiously, down the stream among the fleet. But Farragut had anticipated this very thing, and had hooks prepared to tow them ashore, or take them past the fleet, where they could float out to sea. An attack was to be made on the forts in the night, and all the decks were painted white, that needed articles might be found with greater ease. Every spare chain was hung up and down the sides of the vessels, where they would protect the machinery from the enemy's shot. Farragut's plan was to run by the forts, injuring them as much as possible as he passed; capture the Confederate fleet, and hasten up the river to the city. At 3:30 o'clock in the morning of April 24, the fleet started. Four nights before, two gunboats had gone up the river and succeeded in cutting the chain across the river, making an opening wide enough for the fleet to pass through. Some of the gunboats engaged the water battery of Fort Jackson while the fleet went by. The first division consisted of eight

vessels, and was commanded by Captain Bailey, a sailor or as much experience as Farragut. He had soon passed Fort St. Philip, and found himself fighting with eleven Confederate vessels. The work which he did in the next few minutes is almost unequalled. He rammed some of the vessels, put shot into others, turned his huge swivel gun at others, exploded a shell in the boiler of one and finally passed the fort with his division. The second division, with the flag-ship *Hartford* leading, had yet more serious trouble. The *Hartford* was set on fire by a fire-raft, but her guns were loaded and fired as coolly as if nothing was the matter, and at last such a rain of shot was poured into Fort St. Philip



ADMIRAL DAVID FARRAGUT.

that the bastions were cleared, and the gunners could be seen running to shelter. A part of the third division became entangled among the hulks, and did not get by the chain, but three of the six gunboats came on bravely, burning two steamboats and driving another ashore on their way. On the morning of the 25th New Orleans was at the mercy of the National guns, and the unconditional surrender of the city was demanded. The stars and stripes were raised over the city, and in the midst of the greatest tumult General Farragut took possession of the city with two hundred and fifty marines. General Butler arrived there

with his forces on the 1st of May, and he kept possession of the city throughout the remainder of the war. When he came into it, it was turbulent, disorderly and mutinous. His rule of it was so stern that it has often been criticised severely, but he left it cleaner than it had ever been before, and in order and comfort.

While the naval expedition which conquered New Orleans was on



GENERAL BENJAMIN BUTLER

its way, the waters of Hampton Roads, from which it sailed, were the scene of that famous battle between the *Monitor* and the *Merrimac*, which revolutionized naval warfare. The *Merrimac* was a great steam frigate, with a high hull and a steep roof covered with wrought iron five inches thick, with a lining of oak seven inches thick. The sides

of the ram were also plated with iron, and the bow was armed with an iron ram something like a huge plowshare. Ten guns looked out from the dormer windows in her roof. She was under the command of Franklin Buchanan, and on the 8th of March, accompanied by two gunboats, she went out to raise the blockade of the James and Elizabeth rivers, by destroying the wooden war vessels in Hampton Roads. She first met the frigate *Cumberland*, which gave her a dreadful broadside, but though some of the shot entered her open ports and broke two of her guns, all that struck her armor rattled off her like hail off a roof. She ran her iron prow into the *Cumberland*, and that vessel at once began to settle. Her commander would not surrender, however, and the crew stood by their guns, firing broadside after broadside, until the vessel went down with her colors still flying. When the frigate had reached the bottom, her top-mast still projected above the surface, with the American flag upon it. Such of the men as were not wounded leaped overboard at the last minute, and got ashore with the help of the boats. When the *Merrimac* had completed the destruction of this vessel she attacked the *Congress* and finally set her on fire.

The next morning the *Merrimac* undertook to finish up the fleet, but at the opening of her operations was met by a new antagonist. It was a small iron vessel, looking, as the men said, "like a cheese-box on a raft." Nothing appeared above the water except the flat iron surface over which the waves washed, and a revolving iron-clad turret in which there was one gun. This was the *Monitor*, built by John Ericsson, and commanded by Captain John L. Worden. This little vessel had just been hurried into Hampton Roads, after a stormy and dangerous passage, when she met the *Merrimac*. She placed herself between the wooden ships and the great *Merrimac*, and a fight of four hours followed. The broadsides from the monstrous iron ship had little effect upon the saucy *Monitor*. At times the vessels almost touched each other. The *Monitor* drew less water than the *Merrimac*, and could steam quite around her. By afternoon the *Merrimac* withdrew to Norfolk, and did not come down to fight again. A little later she was abandoned and blown up. Eight months later the plucky little *Monitor* foundered in a gale off Cape Hatteras.

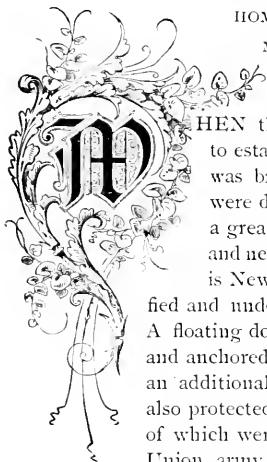
FOR FURTHER READING—

- HISTORY**—Soley's "The Blockade and the Cruisers."
 Ammen's "The Atlantic Coast."
 Farton's "General Butler in New Orleans."
 Peckham's "General Lyon and Missouri in 1861."
FICTION—L. M. Childs' "A Romance of the Republic."
 C. C. Coffin's "Winning His Way."
 J. E. Cooke's "Hilt to Hilt."
POETRY—E. J. Butler's "War Poems."

CHAPTER LXXXVIII.

Shiloh and its Sequel.

THE CAMPAIGN AT ISLAND NO. 10—THE BATTLE OF SHILOH—SIEGE
OF CORINTH—THE CONFLICT AT THE EAST UNDER M'CLEL-
LAN—SIEGE OF YORKTOWN—THE BATTLE OF
WILLIAMSBURG—THE BATTLE OF SEVEN
PINES—BATTLE OF CHICKA-
HOMINY—BATTLE OF
MALVERN HILL.



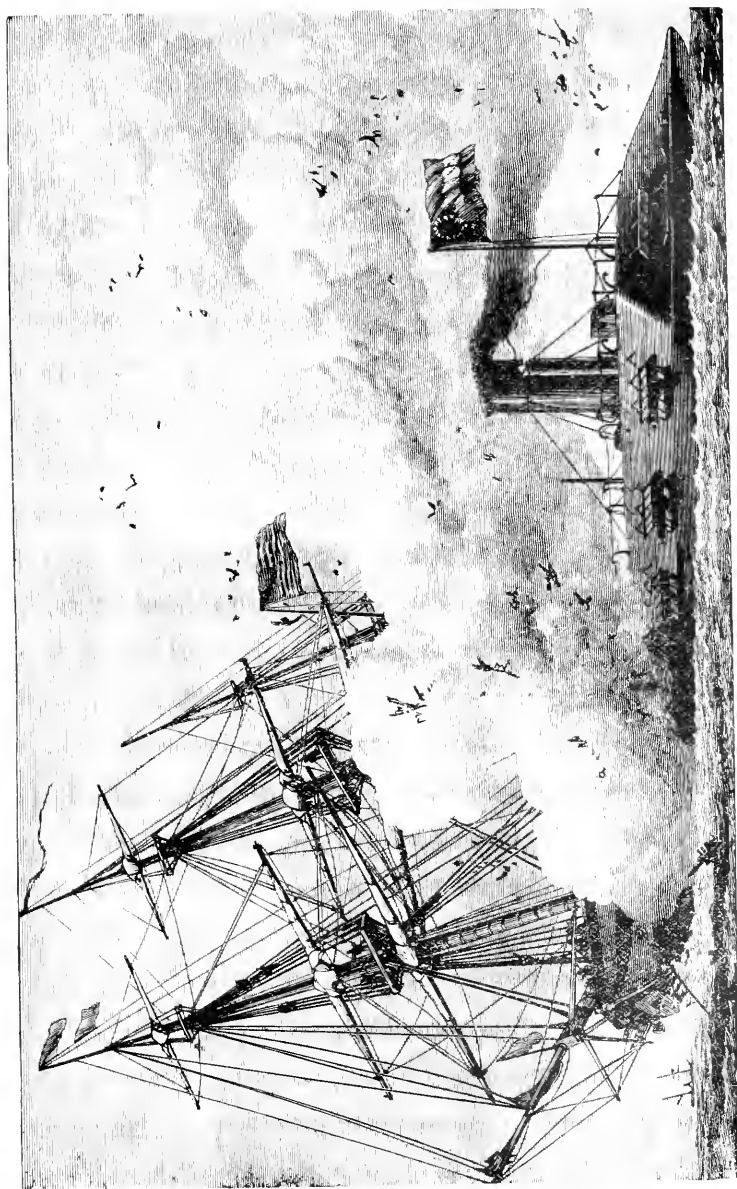
WHEN the first line that the Confederates had tried to establish from the mountains to the Mississippi was broken through, their forces at Columbus were drawn down the river to $36^{\circ} 30'$. Here, in a great curve of the Mississippi, is Island No. 10, and near it, in a second bend on the Missonri side, is New Madrid. Both of these places were fortified and under the direction of General Leonidas Polk. A floating dock had been brought up from New Orleans and anchored near the island. Eight gunboats furnished an additional guard. The works on the island were also protected by batteries on the Tennessee shore, back of which were impassable swamps. The desire of the Union army was to break through this new line of defence, and early in March a large force, commanded by

General John Pope, moved down the west bank of the Mississippi against New Madrid. Trenches for field guns were sunken under cover of darkness at a point below New Madrid, and sharpshooters placed at the edge of the bank to harass the passing gunboats and transports. Four large siege guns were taken across the city and over a long stretch of swampy ground, and placed in position to bombard the works. On the 13th of March, 1862, New Madrid was evacuated, and the Union forces hastened to take possession and arrange their guns so as to

command the river. On the 16th, five Confederate gunboats attacked these batteries, but were damaged so that they soon drew off. On the 16th and 17th the Union fleet of gunboats under Commodore Andrew H. Foote, engaged the batteries at Island No. 10, and a hundred heavy guns were in action at one time. The great and treacherous stream washing about the ramparts had weakened some of them so that the balls went straight through them, but the artillery men stood to their guns ankle-deep in water, undaunted in the midst of exploding shells. The attack was kept up from day to day; many men were killed upon both sides, but no decisive effect was produced. A canal was finally cut across the peninsula formed by the bend of the river above New Madrid. This canal was twelve miles long, and half of the distance lay through a deep forest, standing in water, and the trunks of the trees had to be sawed off four or five feet below the surface. Notwithstanding these difficulties, a channel fifty feet wide and four feet deep was finally completed, and on the night of April 14th a gunboat ran past the batteries of Island No. 10, escaping serious damage. On the 7th, Pope crossed in force, protected by the gunboat which had gone through the canal, and intercepted the greater part of the Confederate troops, which were now trying to escape southward. Pope captured three generals, two hundred and seventy-three officers and six thousand seven hundred men, besides one hundred and fifty-eight guns, seven thousand muskets, and a quantity of naval stores and equipments.

On this very day, in Southwestern Tennessee, was being fought one of the bloodiest battles of the war, that of Shiloh. At Corinth, in Northern Mississippi, the Memphis and Charleston railroad crosses the Mobile and Ohio. This made the point of the greatest importance, and it was strongly fortified by a Confederate force under General Albert Sidney Johnson. Under him were Generals Beauregard, Bragg and Hardee.

General Grant determined to move against the place and capture it. On Sunday, April 6th, Grant's main force was at Pittsburg Landing, and divisions, under General Lew Wallace and General Buell, were within reach. Early on the morning of the 6th, Johnson made two sudden attacks upon Grant. Grant's line was two miles long, with General Prentiss' division on the left, McClelland's in the centre, and Sherman's on the right. They had no intrenchments, but the ground was undulating, with patches of woods among the fields, and about the little church of Shiloh was a ridge. Such protection as the ground afforded they took advantage of. The attack began at day-break. The



THE "MERRIMAC" SINKING THE "CUMBERLAND."

Confederates were sure of success, and fought with the enthusiasm which such a mood will produce. Grant sent for Wallace and Buell, but they did not bring up their forces until night. The Union troops fought every inch of ground, but were forced back, little by little. Sherman's men were crowded back more than a mile, but still clung around the bridge over which they were expecting Lew Wallace to come to their aid. The same ground was charged over again and again until it was simply incumbered with the dead. General Albert Sidney Johnson, upon the side of the Confederates, was killed, and the command fell upon General Beauregard. General Sherman had several horses killed under him, and was three times hit with bullets, but he stayed on the battle field till the end. General Prentiss and twenty-two hundred of his men were captured by the Confederates, but Grant hastened to get twenty guns into position, and finally forced the Confederate column at that point to retire. Many of the Union men in this engagement were under fire for the first time, and the terrors of the battle completely unnerved them, and as there was no way of escaping beyond the river, they huddled upon the bank, frightened beyond the power to move. At night, Beauregard discontinued the attack, intending to renew it in the morning and complete his victory. Lew Wallace was now in position, and Buell's army was being brought across the Tennessee.

In the midst of the night a fire sprang up in the woods, and threatened for a time to add to the miseries of Shiloh by roasting many of the wounded alive, but a providential rain fell and extinguished it. In the morning, both armies prepared for fight—both of them desperate, wet and fatigued. Beauregard made a stubborn fight for the purpose of holding the road which ran by Shiloh Church, and by which alone he could conduct an orderly retreat. The death of Johnson had plunged the Confederates in hopeless confusion, and the men were melancholy and dispirited. Sherman advanced his command and recaptured his camps. Grant and Beauregard each led a charge with two regiments which had lost their commanders. Beauregard's failed, but Grant launched his men with a ringing cheer against the Confederate line and broke it. Beauregard had no choice but to make as soldierly a retreat as possible, while Grant captured nearly as many guns on the second day as he had lost on the first. The roads were too heavy and the men too exhausted to pursue Beauregard's force. The loss on both sides had been terrible. General Grant says that four thousand was the estimate of the burial parties for the whole field.

After the battle, General Halleck took command in person and laid siege to Corinth to capture it by regular approaches. Both he and Beauregard were reinforced till each had about one hundred thousand men. Halleck closed about the place, till in the night of May 29th Beauregard evacuated it and Sherman's soldiers were ordered into the town. It was believed by many that the battle of Shiloh decided the fate of the Confederacy.

But it is necessary now to return to the campaign at the East. General George B. McClellan had been put in command of the Army of the Potomac. He had acquitted himself with distinction in the Mexican war, was a graduate of West Point, a thorough student of engineering, and had been given every advantage which the Government could afford. Under his direction Washington was well fortified, and the fifty thousand men at the capital soon swelled to one hundred thousand, organized thoroughly and working in perfect correspondence. Having got his men in this excellent state of drill, McClellan rested. The summer passed and then the autumn, but no movement was made. He had done his work so well up to this time that the people had confidence in him, and believed that he was only waiting for the fortunate moment to fall upon the Confederate capital and subdue it. But day after day went by, and no news came from his army except that "all was quiet on the Potomac."

The Confederacy was growing stronger every day, and the Potomac was being closed to navigation by the building of batteries on the southern bank. The enemy's flag could be seen from the Capital, and the question of interference by the treacherous Louis Napoleon was agitating the statesmen. At this time General Winfield Scott, who was seventy-five years of age, begged leave to retire from the responsibilities of the army, and McClellan succeeded him as Commander-in-chief of all the armies. In vain did President Lincoln urge McClellan to move. That general constantly called for more men, and under-estimated the number which he had. He also over-estimated the men upon the opposite side. The President finally called him to a council, and asked him to disclose his plan for the campaign, but this McClellan refused to do. A few days later, however, he wrote the President that his intention was to move his army down the Potomac on transports, land it at Fort Monroe, and march up to attack the defences of Richmond on the north and east sides. The President did not approve of this plan, but on consulting with various generals, concluded to permit it. The Confederate general, Joseph Johnston, who had commanded at

Bull Run, and had kept his army within easy marching distance of Washington ever since, now hastened to place his troops before Richmond. On the 27th of February, 1862, McClellan's army was moved down the Potomac on four hundred vessels. It numbered one hundred and twenty-one thousand men and these were divided into four corps, the commands of which were given to Generals McDowell, Sumner, Heintzelman and Keyes. On the 2d of April McClellan moved upon Yorktown, where the Confederates had a strong defence of earthworks. The plan of the Confederates was simply to delay McClellan at Yorktown till the defences at the Confederate capital could be strengthened. McClellan supposed that Johnston's entire army was in the defences at Yorktown, and he approached the place by regular parallels, according to the laborious methods of a well-sustained siege. He spent nearly a month here, and when he was ready to open fire with the siege guns, he found that the enemy had quietly departed, leaving "Quaker guns" (wooden logs on wheels) in the embrasures. McClellan hastened in pursuit, and overtook the Confederate rear about twelve miles from Yorktown, bringing about the battle of Williamsburg. The place had been well fortified months before, and the Confederates took advantage of this. The Union soldiers attacked the earthworks and silenced the batteries. General Hancock's sixteen hundred men suddenly burst over the crest of the works, and charged upon the enemy with fixed bayonets, forcing them back. The Confederates moved off in the night to join their main army, leaving four hundred of their wounded behind them, and taking away about as many prisoners. McClellan now pushed on to White House, at the head of York river, and established a base of supplies. From this point he moved westward toward Richmond, expecting to be joined by a column of forty thousand men under McDowell, but Stonewall Jackson made one of his brilliant raids from the heart of the Shenandoah valley, and McDowell was obliged to go in pursuit of him.

McClellan reached the Chickahominy river and fought two small battles at Mechanicsville and Hanover Junction. A portion of his army had been swung across the Chickahominy and Johnston determined to strike this detached wing. In the midst of a heavy rain on the night of May 30th, he fell upon this division. This was within half a dozen miles of Richmond. The Union troops were behind some half-finished works and resisted the charge bravely, but the Confederates succeeded in gaining a position in the rear of the redoubts, and it looked for a time as if their opponents could not hold their line. Keyes

was in command of the Union forces, and after a time Sumner's men succeeded in crossing the river and joining him. Sumner was the oldest officer in the command, but his sixty-six years did not keep him from being energetic. When he heard the fire on the other side he drew up his men in line, anticipating the order which came. There was but one bridge over the river, and the water was swollen so that many of the supports were washed away and it swung backward and forward with the rushing waters, but over this the men walked, their heavy weight steadying it somewhat, and all reached the other side in safety. Sumner was just in time to save Keyes, and succeeded in repelling the numerous charges of the Confederates and driving them off at last in confusion. The battle is known as that of Fair Oaks, or Seven Pines. It cost the Union army over five thousand men and the Confederates nearly seven thousand. General Johnston was so wounded that he was unable to take active command for a long time. It was the wet season, and several weeks followed without either army being able to move. The ground was made up of alternate layers of clay and quicksand, which turned into a swamp under the rain, and the guns sank into the earth by their own weight. McClellan kept calling for reinforcements, which he did not need, but these could not be given him. His position was very unfortunate, for his men were dying of malaria by the hundred, and his supplies were constantly imperiled by the swelling of the Chickahominy, which made every bridge insecure.

The command of the Confederate forces in Virginia was now under General Robert E. Lee. His plan was to bring large bodies of troops from North Carolina, Georgia and the Shenandoah valley to fall upon McClellan. The total number of his army is said to have been eighty thousand seven hundred and sixty-two. McClellan had ninety-two thousand five hundred. Lee was curious to know the extent of McClellan's earthworks, and sent a body of one thousand two hundred cavalry with two light guns to reconnoitre. This was commanded by General E. B. Stuart, one of the most dashing of the Confederate officers, who distinguished himself by wearing a gay costume, with yellow sash and black plume, and pricking his white horse with golden spurs. He made the entire circuit of McClellan's army, rebuilding a bridge to cross the lower Chickahominy, and reached Richmond in safety. McClellan was aroused to the danger of his position, and decided to make the James river his base. Stonewall Jackson filled in the weary days by a series of swift and brilliant movements, which charmed his friends and bewildered his enemies. He was selected by

Lee to keep up these mysterious movements for the purpose of misleading McClellan. Secretary Stanton, one of the most careful and efficient war secretaries that ever lived, surmised that there was little significance in these movements, and advised the general of his impression. The various misconceptions arising from these movements led to McClellan's defeat at the battle of Chickahominy, which was fought on the 27th of June. But though the Union forces were driven from their position in this engagement, the loss among the Confederates was much the larger. McClellan now retreated through the swamp roads with his long trains, destroying hundreds of tons of ammunition and



GENERAL ROBERT E. LEE.

millions of rations before his departure. The Confederates hastened after the Union army and attacked the rear guard. Three times they assailed and were three times repelled. After a rest they made another attack at sunset on the 28th, and advanced with a rush, but were obliged to retreat. The Union army moved slowly on, and after this defence were obliged to burn another immense quantity of food and clothing, and to leave twenty-five hundred sick and wounded men behind. Then a detachment of the Confederate army, under Hill and Longstreet, crossed the Chickahominy, marched around the Great White Oak swamp, through which the Union forces were passing, and struck
YFP 11.

the retreating army near Charles City Cross-road on the 30th. A terrible engagement followed. Never were there bloodier repulses or more daring attacks. The losses in men are not exactly known, but they were very large. McClellan's army, however, continued to retreat to Malvern Hill, where a last stand was made. This is a plateau on the James river, having an elevation of about six hundred feet, and an extent of about one mile and a half in one direction, and a mile in the other. It is surrounded by streams and swamps in such a manner as to leave no practical approach except by the narrow northwest face. Here McClellan placed his entire army in the form of a semi-circle, and waited for the enemy. His whole front bristled with artillery, and the men found considerable shelter behind the natural inequalities of the ground. Lee's men came on, excited by their successes of the week past, and confident that they would win. They advanced their artillery and began a bold attack, but their batteries were knocked to pieces in a few minutes. The cavalry were thrown into confusion by the shells from the gunboats, and rushed headlong among the infantry, breaking up the whole attack. On the afternoon of July 1st, Lee renewed the assault with his whole army, but was repulsed with such a bloody fire, that the men began to protest against renewing the attack. The fighting was kept up till 9 o'clock in the evening, and cost Lee five thousand men. The Union loss was but one-third of this number. McClellan withdrew his army in the night to Harrison's Landing, on the James, where the gunboats could protect his position. This retreat is known as the Seven Days. McClellan's campaign was admitted to be a failure. Why it was so has been a subject discussed by the people of the North from that time to this. As a disciplinarian he was the most efficient general in the army. He was a master of engineering and a man of personal bravery, but he lacked decision. He was over-careful. It should be remembered, however, that it is not the men of his command who make this criticism.

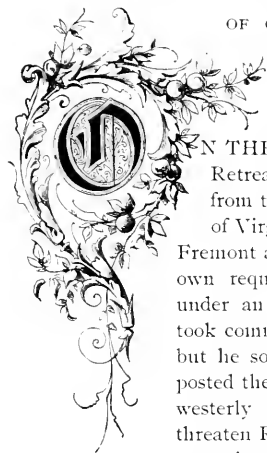
FOR FURTHER READING.

- HISTORY**—Allen's "Gen. Jackson in the Shenandoah Valley."
 Welby's "The Peninsula."
 Coppee's "Grant and His Campaign."
 Edge's "McClellan and Yorktown Campaign."
 Joinville's "Army of the Potomac."
 Ree's "Hospital Life in Potomac Army."
 Swinton's "McClellan's Military Career."
FICTION—"Surrey of Eagle's Nest."
 W. A. Cruse's "Cameron Hall."
POETRY—Stedman's "Kearney at Seven Pines."

CHAPTER LXXXIX.

Close of the Peninsula Campaign.

THE ARMY OF VIRGINIA UNDER THE COMMAND OF POPE—GENERAL HALLECK MADE GENERAL-IN-CHIEF—BATTLE OF CEDAR MOUNTAIN—M'CLELLAN LEAVES THE PENINSULA—BATTLE OF GROVETON—LOSS OF GENERALS STEVENS AND KEARNEY.



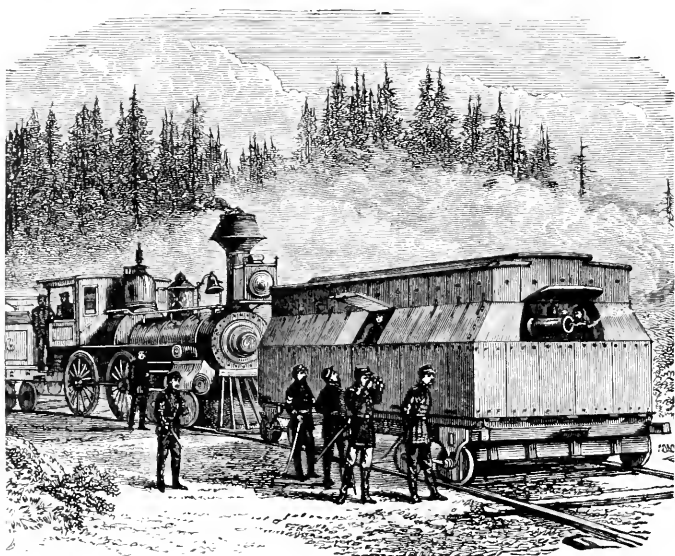
ON THE 26th of June, the first of the Seven Days' Retreat, General John Pope, who had been called from the West, was put in command of the Army of Virginia, composed of the corps of McDowell, Fremont and Banks. Fremont was removed, at his own request, because he objected to being placed under an officer whom he outranked. When Pope took command of the army it was widely scattered, but he soon brought the forces nearer together and posted them in a line forty miles long, running north-westerly from Fredericksburg. His plan was to threaten Richmond, thereby compelling Lee to detail a portion of his army from McClellan's front, but when McClellan retreated to James River this movement was necessarily postponed. The Administration soon saw that it would be impossible for McClellan and Pope to work together, so widely did their ideas differ upon the conduct of the campaign, and General Halleck was called from the West and made General-in-chief of all the armies of the Union. On July 23, 1862, he assumed command. He was a man of wide military knowledge, but from the first his ideas seemed to be obscure and impracticable, and his wide military learning hampered rather than benefited the armies under him. Pope cheered his army with a ringing address, in which there were some allusions to McClellan's conduct of the campaign which won him many enemies. He

said: "I have come from the West, where we have always seen the backs of our enemies, from an army whose policy has been attack, not defense," and his immediate plans were to advance upon Gordonsville, a place commanding the railroad communications with the far South and Southwest. It was hoped by these means to draw a considerable part of Lee's army away from Richmond, and thus aid any movement by the Army of the Potomac against the rebel capital. Lee at once saw the danger of this threatened movement, and sent Jackson, with two divisions, to Gordonsville, with the promise of reinforcements. Jackson found Pope too strong to warrant him in acting on the offensive, and contented himself with merely occupying Gordonsville. A fortnight passed quietly, and it was then learned that General Burnside's corps had sailed from North Carolina, and arrived at Fortress Monroe; thence, instead of going to McClellan, on the James, it had gone to the Rappahannock. On July 27th, Lee reinforced Jackson, at Gordonsville. Jackson then moved northward. Pope had already begun to move southward, and, quite by accident, the advance of the two armies came into collision on August 9th, at Cedar Mountain, twenty miles north of Gordonsville. Banks had eight thousand men, and the column of Confederates attacking him had about the same number. For a while the fight was in favor of the Union troops, but when rebel reinforcements came up, Banks was driven back, hotly pursued by the enemy. Pope was a few miles away with the bulk of his force. He hurried up as soon as possible, and checked the attack by nightfall. Two days passed with the armies facing each other, and neither caring to attack. Jackson then learned that the Union troops had reinforcements and fell back across the Rapidan. The Rebel loss at Cedar Mountain is given at thirteen hundred and fourteen, the Union loss at nineteen hundred.

Meanwhile McClellan held a strong position at Harrison's Landing, where, if he did nothing else, he was a menace to Richmond, so that Lee dared not draw his army from its defense. Lee was very anxious to get McClellan off the Peninsula so that he could strike out toward Washington. He therefore sent a detachment to bombard McClellan's camp from the opposite side of the river. But this McClellan easily swept away. Then Lee appointed Jackson to make a series of erratic movements through the country for the express purpose of alarming the Administration at Washington so that they would order McClellan's army to leave the Peninsula. The commander-in-chief, Halleck, fell into the trap laid, and McClellan's army was ordered to evacuate the

Peninsula, and, as has been said, Burnside's troops—which were intended for McClellan in the first place—were sent on to Pope. McClellan marched his army to Fortress Monroe, and there embarked it by divisions for the same destination. Within a week after the battle of Cedar Mountain, Lee, seeing that McClellan was leaving the Peninsula, forwarded Longstreet's division and a part of Hood's to Gordonsville, and prepared to follow with his entire army. As Jackson and Longstreet advanced across the Rapidan river, Pope fell back beyond the Rappahannock. Here Burnside's troops reached him. When Lee came up with the remainder of his army and found it impossible to cross the Rappahannock in front of Pope, he sent Jackson to make a flank march westward along that stream, cross it at Silver Springs, and come down upon Pope's right. But Jackson found that a heavy force was already at Silver Springs ready to meet him. Meanwhile, the dashing General Stuart, with fifteen hundred cavalry, crossed the river on the stormy night of the 22d, and guided by a negro, dashed through the darkness and the rain upon the tents occupied by Pope's staff. Some of these were made prisoners, and Stuart secured Pope's dispatch book containing exact information of the number and position of the forces then with him, and the reinforcements promised him and also the direction from which they were to come. The Confederate generals saw that if their army could be flung upon Pope's rear, his communications might be cut off, and his army routed before it could be reinforced by McClellan, with the Army of the Potomac. This movement, to be successful, must be a surprise, and it was necessary to make it with men unincumbered with trains. To do this, Lee had to divide his force for at least four days, in the face of the enemy. The initial movement was given to Jackson, who began his march on the morning of August 25th. With nothing but his artillery to hamper him, he moved quickly through the narrow valley on the east side of the Bull Run Mountains, by every short cut which the fields permitted. At midnight he reached the head of Thoroughfare Gap, through which the mountains must be passed. It was a gap that might have been held by a handful of men against thousands, but Jackson found it wholly unguarded, and on the morning of the 27th, passed through and headed for Bristoe Station, an important point on the railroad, which formed Pope's main source of supply. Jackson left General Ewell here, and himself went northward to Manassas Junction, where there was a great depot of stores almost unguarded. These were taken, and what could not be consumed on the spot were destroyed. Pope learned, meanwhile, of what was going

on and sent a detachment toward Bristoe. In the encounter which followed Ewell was worsted. Pope was now thoroughly aroused and Jackson's position was a critical one. Jackson saw that he might be attacked by vastly superior numbers, and he fell back toward Thoroughfare Gap. Not wishing to show what his ultimate destination was to be, he took up a defensive position upon the spot where the battle of Bull Run had been fought more than a year before. The position was a strong one and had the advantage of a deep cut which formed the bed



A RAILROAD BATTERY.

of an abandoned railroad. This could be used as an intrenchment. Here the battle was opened, on the morning of the 29th, and from daylight till after dark the Union troops led the attack and the Confederates stoutly stood to the defense. As night closed in Pope believed that Jackson was retreating, although Jackson was only withdrawing a part of his line to join with Longstreet's reinforcements. Pope was also reinforced on the morning of the 30th, and ordered McDowell to press on in pursuit. Then the Union troops learned that Jackson had

not been retreating, when the Confederates presented a solid front, and the entire force on both sides was engaged in a hot conflict. All through the day, first one and then the other of the divisions on both sides were repulsed, only to reform and renew the attack. In the end the Union army was defeated, though not routed, and it retreated in good order across the Bull Run, and fell back to Centreville. This engagement is sometimes known as the second battle of Bull Run, but oftener as the battle of Groveton. The entire Confederate loss for the three days was eight thousand four hundred and ten in killed and wounded. The Union loss was not less than eleven thousand. Lee says that he took seven thousand unwounded prisoners. Pope confessed that there was terrible straggling among the Union troops, and that thousands of men left their commands and were never in any action. The result of the action, though not discouraging to the supporters of the Union cause, showed rather conclusively that Pope had been outgeneraled by Jackson.

In spite of the fierce storm that raged through the 31st, Jackson pursued the Union troops across Bull Run. McDowell and Heintzelman were sent to oppose him, and the forces met at Chantilly on September 1st. There was a slight encounter in the twilight, and in it were lost two of the most efficient Union generals, Stevens and Phil Kearney. Kearney had ridden forward to reconnoitre, and coming suddenly upon a squad of Confederates, was shot. He had lost an arm in the Mexican War, was with Napoleon III at Solferino and Magenta, and had just passed through the Peninsula campaign with McClellan.

The battle of Groveton brought about one of the most distressing incidents of the war. General Fitz-John Porter was removed from command because he did not obey orders, and move to support Pope when he was commanded to do so. It will be remembered that Jackson was opposed to Pope in a parallel line, and that Longstreet had come up to reinforce Jackson. Pope did not know this, but Porter did, and he feared to leave his position, when by doing so Longstreet could turn Pope's left flank. Thousands of pages have been written concerning the matter, and most writers on the subject have agreed that Porter deserved the severe punishment which he received. He was court-martialed, degraded from his position, and forbidden to hold any office of trust or remuneration under the United States Government. Some reparation has been made in later years, however, and General Grant, in reviewing the subject, finally declared that he did not believe Porter to

be at fault. After the affair at Chantilly, Lee made no further attempt on Pope's army, and on September 2d, by Halleck's orders, it was withdrawn to the fortifications at Washington, where it was merged in the Army of the Potomac. The losses in the campaign are unknown.

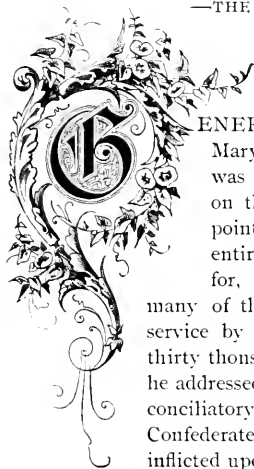
FOR FURTHER READING.

- HISTORY**—Gilmore's "Four Years in the Saddle."
Hepworth's "Whip, Hoe and Sword."
Kirkland's "Anecdotes of the Rebellion."
Oats' "Prison Life in Dixie."
FICTION—Cobb's "Veteran of the Grand Army."
A. C. Denison's "Westmoreland."
Fuller's "Browning's."
J. R. Gilmore's "Among the Guerrillas."

CHAPTER XC.

The Bloody Field of Antietam.

LEE'S ARMY MOVES NORTHWARD—THE BATTLE OF SOUTH MOUNTAIN
—THE BATTLE OF ANTIETAM.



GENERAL LEE now pushed northward into Maryland, with his whole army. The movement was commenced on the third of September, and on the fifth the army crossed the Potomac at a point thirty miles above Washington. The entire force was not more than sixty thousand, for, aside from losses by sickness and death, many of the Confederates were debarred from active service by fatigue. In six weeks Lee had lost fully thirty thousand men. When he reached Frederick City he addressed the people of Maryland in a paternal and conciliatory manner, telling them that the people of the Confederate States had long watched the wrongs inflicted upon the citizens of a commonwealth to which they were bound by so many ties, and wished to aid them in throwing off this foreign yoke. A call for recruits to the Confederate army was made, but less than five hundred Marylanders responded to this appeal, and the towns through which Lee passed showed closed blinds and deserted streets. It was evident that the Confederate armies were not welcome in Maryland. Most of those who had sympathized with the cause of the South had already joined the Confederate armies, but the greater part of the fighting men of Maryland were enlisted with the national forces. The Confederate army was in the most miserable state. It was ragged, dirty, footsore, and, no doubt, heartily homesick. But there was no lack of bravery; indeed, it was a standing joke that bravery was the cheapest thing among them. Had their cause been righteous, the spectacle of this suffering army would have been

sublime. As it was, it was simply pitiable. Rags and misery dignify a noble cause, but they can only accent the mistakes of an unrighteous one.

McClellan rapidly re-organized his army, and in less than a week had one hundred and seventy-two thousand men, of whom one hundred thousand were to form the movable force, and the rest to be kept for the defense of Washington. Banks was placed in command of the fortifications at the capital. On the seventh of September McClellan moved toward Lee, whose force he estimated at just twice its actual number. On the tenth Lee move northwestward, his immediate destination being Hagerstown. To reach this, he had to cross the South mountains, a steep range, one thousand feet high, cut through to a depth of four hundred feet by Turner's and Crampton's Gaps. These gaps were six miles apart. The national forces reached Frederick on the twelfth, and McClellan accidentally came into possession of a copy of General Lee's order book, which contained the movements and operations of the next few days. In this book McClellan learned that Lee intended to take possession of the heights around Harper's Ferry, where fourteen hundred raw national troops guarded the United States arsenal. The ferry is in a narrow valley, at the junction of the Potomac and Shenandoah. Upon three sides are the heights. If these were occupied, it would be subjected to a fire to which there could be no effective reply. Jackson's corps, now fifteen thousand strong, was to pass through Turner's Gap, make a wide detour, cross the Potomac above the ferry, and, going down the river, seize Bolivar Heights on the west. A part of Longstreet's corps was to go by way of Crampton's Gap, and seize Maryland Heights on the east; while yet another detachment was to move up the Potomac and seize Loudon Heights on the south. When Harper's Ferry was captured, the whole army was to be re-united at Hagerstown.

McClellan had reason to be gratified at the reception which he met at Frederick. But the serious work before him left him no time to enjoy the festivities prepared for him. Walker had already gained Loudon Heights. Maryland Heights were also occupied. Miles, who commanded the force at Harper's Ferry, remained stupidly in the trap, and was obliged to consent to Jackson's terms of unconditional surrender. More than fifteen thousand men laid down their arms, and were at once paroled. The Confederates also gained a large number of guns and muskets. Jackson's own division was allowed no time for rest, but was ordered to join Lee, who was hard pressed fifteen miles away. They began their march at midnight, and in the grey of the seventeenth,

such of the men as had held out joined Lee, and were given their places in line of battle. What had happened with Lee was this: He had learned that McClellan knew of his plans, and realized, of course, that he would try to thwart them. McClellan arrived at Turner's and Crampton's Gaps on the morning of the 14th. Lee had learned of his movements, and had a defence at each gap. Turner's Gap was flanked by two old roads that crossed the mountain a mile north and south of it. Using these and clambering up from rock to rock, the Union troops reached the crests, opposed at every step by the Confederate riflemen between the trees and ledges. There was a bloody and persistent fight all day, with the Union forces constantly gaining ground, and at dark the field was won. The Confederates withdrew in the night, and in the morning the victorious columns passed through to the western side of the mountain. In this battle McClellan lost fifteen hundred men killed or wounded. The Confederates lost about the same number, and in addition fifteen hundred were made prisoners. The fight at Crampton's Gap was quite similar. These two actions, fought September 14, 1862, are known as the Battle of South Mountain.

Lee then withdrew across Antietam creek, and took up a strong position beyond that stream. Lee's army numbered now only a little over forty thousand. The stragglers were numerous and with little wonder. Lee might console himself, however, with the reflection, that the men who had stood by him were his best men, and that he could bring the very flower of his forces into the coming battle. The Antietam was crossed by four stone bridges and a ford, and all except the most northern bridge were strongly guarded. The ground consisted of rich meadows, dotted with cornfields and groves. On the 16th McClellan threw his right wing across the Antietam by the northern unguarded bridge, intending to engage the enemy's attention there, and thus to force the other bridges and cross with his forces. An artillery duel was kept up through the day across the creek, in which the Confederate generals acknowledged that their batteries were no match for their opponents. The skirmish brought on by Hooker's crossing the upper bridge was soon ended by the gathering darkness, and the men rested where they were. In the night McClellan sent reinforcements to Hooker. Sumner was put in readiness to follow at an early hour, and preparations for a battle were made. Meanwhile Lee had also made his preparations. All but two thousand of his forces had come up, and when the morning of September 17th dawned, Hooker assaulted Johnston at sunrise. A more beautiful spot could hardly have been imagined,

or a more peaceful one. But now it was desecrated by two determined armies, both bent upon a battle, in which there could be no surprises, no shirking or evading—nothing but misery and death. Early in the day Hooker was seriously wounded and taken from the field, while Sumner crossed the stream and came up with his corps. His men drove back the enemy, and were apparently advancing to victory, when two fresh divisions were brought over from the Confederate ranks and thrust in a gap in Sumner's line. The Confederates were driven back to their former position after a bloody struggle, and fighting of this sort went on all forenoon. Lee was forced to bring into action every available man, while on the other side Porter and Burnside, with their strong divisions, lay idly by and were not called into action. It was 4 o'clock in the afternoon before Burnside led his men across the Antietam to aid in the attack. He succeeded in gaining a strong position where he could enfilade the Confederate lines. But at this moment General A. P. Hill came up from Harper's Ferry with four thousand men. These flung themselves fiercely into the attack, and Burnside's corps fled in disorder to the creek, which they crossed the next morning. The entire Union loss in the bloody battle of Antietam was two thousand and ten killed, nine thousand four hundred and sixteen wounded and one thousand and forty-three missing. The entire Confederate loss was not less than twenty thousand.

This terrible destruction of life had been almost useless. The battle of Antietam was not a decisive one, but it was very encouraging to the North, and President Lincoln, emboldened by it, put forth a hint of the proclamation of the abolition of slavery, saying that if on the first of the ensuing January the Rebellion should still continue, he should, in virtue of his power as Commander-in-chief of the Army and Navy of the United States, order and declare that all persons held as slaves in the rebellious sections were to be free from that time forever, and that the Executive Government of the United States should recognize and maintain their freedom; and, also, that such persons of suitable condition should be received into the armed service of the United States.

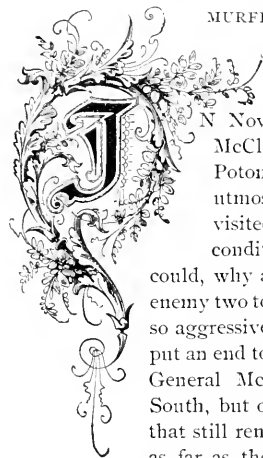
FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY**—Banvard's "Tragic Scenes in the History of Maryland."
 Logan's "Great Conspiracy."
 Williams' "Negro Troops in the Rebellion."
FICTION—Mrs. R. Hare's "Standish."
 J. H. Hosmer's "Thinking Bayonet."
 S. Lanier's "Tiger Lilies."
 J. H. Mathew's "Guy Hamilton."
POETRY—G. W. Herve's "Ballads of the War."
 E. V. Mason's "Southern Poetry of the War."
 H. Melville's "Battle Pieces."

CHAPTER XCI.

“All Us Niggahs is Free!”

BURNSIDE MADE COMMANDER OF THE ARMY OF THE POTOMAC—THE
BATTLE OF FREDERICKSBURG—THE EMANCIPATION PROCLAMA-
TION—BATTLES OF PERRYVILLE, IUKA, CORINTH,
MURFREESBORO AND CHAN-
CELLORVILLE.



IN November, 1862, General Burnside succeeded McClellan in command of the Army of the Potomac. President Lincoln had shown the utmost patience with McClellan. Twice he had visited his headquarters to see for himself the condition of the army, and to find, if he possibly could, why a general with an army outnumbering the enemy two to one, should have permitted that enemy to be so aggressive. In short, Mr. Lincoln was determined to put an end to the Rebellion and bring the South to terms. General McClellan did not believe in punishing the South, but only in repelling an invasion of those States that still remained in the Union. He had followed Lee as far as the Potomac, and then sat quietly down and called for unlimited reinforcements. He complained that his men wanted shoes, and that his horses were fatigued. Weeks of beautiful fall weather passed without tempting him to any exploits. On the twenty-sixth of October, he began to cross the Potomac, but it was ten days before his army was all on the south side of the river, and then he renewed his delays. It was, therefore, a great relief to all the loyal people of America when McClellan was removed.

Ambrose E. Burnside was a graduate of West Point. He had commanded cavalry in the Mexican war, served faithfully, thus far, in the Rebellion, and was the inventor of a breech-loading rifle. The command of the Army of the Potomac had been offered to him twice before, but he had refused it on the ground that he was not competent

to command such a large army. When he accepted it, he did so with reluctance. At this time the right wing of Lee's army, under Longstreet, was near Culpepper, and the left, under Jackson, was in the Shenandoah valley. They were so far apart that it would take two days for one force to march to the other, and McClellan said that it had been his intention to get between them. Burnside did not continue this plan, but set out for Richmond, by way of the north branch of the Rappahannock and the city of Fredericksburg. He spent ten days in reorganizing his army into three grand divisions, under Sumner, Hooker and Franklin. On the 15th of November he began marching, and on the 20th the whole army was at Falmouth, waiting for the pontoon train, which was to meet the army at this point, to take them across the river. They did not arrive for a week, and, in the meantime, Lee, to protect Richmond, placed his army on the heights south and west of Fredericksburg, and began to fortify them. His line was about five miles and a half long; his position well selected and fortified. Burnside had taken possession of the heights on the river, that he might defend the passage of his troops, with a large number of guns. But he did not attempt to cross the stream until the 10th of December. His plan was to lay down five bridges—three opposite the city, and the others two miles below. The work was begun in a thick fog, but before the bridges had covered half the stream the fog was dispersed, and the movements of the national army revealed to the Confederates. A detachment of Mississippi riflemen had been concealed behind stone walls, in cellars, and every other protected place, and now picked off, with fatal accuracy, the men who were laying the bridges. The unfortunate soldiers fell, one after another, and were carried down the river with the current. Even the bravest finally shrank from the task of completing the bridge, and the work had to be discontinued. At the lower bridges the sharpshooters were dislodged after a time, and the bridges completed, but along the front of the town they were well sheltered, and the national guns could not be made to reach them. Burnside tried bombarding the town, throwing seventy tons of iron into it, and setting it on fire, but the sharpshooters were not dislodged. At last, three regiments, the Seventeenth Michigan, and the Nineteenth and Twentieth Massachusetts, volunteered to cross the river in pontoon boats, and drive the sharpshooters from their retreats. They did it, under a murderous fire, and captured a hundred of the sharpshooters before they could escape to the hills. The bridges were then completed, and on the 12th of September the entire army was on the Fredericksburg

side of the river. Lee had concentrated his whole army on the fortified heights; Longstreet was on his left and Jackson on his right. His army was in good spirits and determined to succeed. Burnside's orders at the beginning of the day were somewhat inconsistent, and his commanders were confused and irritated by them.

General Meade's division was the first to advance. It did so under a heavy Confederate fire, broke between two divisions of the first Confederate line, captured many prisoners and some battle-flags, and scaling the heights, came upon the second line. This drove them back, but they were protected from pursuit by Birney's division. Generals French and Hancock attacked with Sumner's division. They moved through the town and deployed in columns under the fire of the Confederate batteries. The hottest fighting took place at the foot of Mary's Hill, just below the city. This hill falls off suddenly to a sunken road, faced on the city side by a low stone wall. The hill was crowned with batteries, and this sunken road was used as a defence of the hill. French and Hancock, as they went on bravely with their divisions, were quite unconscious of the sunken road that lay by the wall. Their division had the distinction of never having turned their backs to the enemy, and they were as determined now as men could be. The front to be carried was so narrow that scarcely more than a brigade could be brought up at once, and as these rushed on, brigade after brigade was swept back till fully four thousand men were killed and wounded. Burnside was watching the fight from across the river and said to Hooker, "That crest must be crossed to-night." All who heard him protested, but Burnside insisted that it must be done, and as night was approaching Hooker made ready to attack. He began by a fierce artillery fire, but this made no more impression, so he said, "than if it had been made against a mountain of rock." The Confederate fire from the crest had ceased, for their ammunition had given out. At sunset Hooker ordered Humphreys, with four thousand men, to make an assault with empty muskets, as there was no time to load and fire. They rushed on toward the low stone wall. The sunken road could not be seen by them, but within it were troops standing four deep and perfectly protected from the fire. So numerous, indeed, were they that only a part of them fired and the rest loaded muskets. When within a few rods of this road, a solid sheet of lead and fire was poured upon the advancing column. In fifteen minutes seventeen hundred of the four thousand assailants were killed or wounded. Then the depleted columns were withdrawn and the battle was ended. The

Confederate loss had been, in all, but five thousand four hundred and nine; the Union was thirteen thousand four hundred and eighty-seven. In the night the Union troops brought in their wounded and buried some of their dead. Burnside would have liked to make a fresh attack the next day, but the other generals dissuaded him, and the army was withdrawn to the north bank of the Rappahannock. The Confederates began to regard themselves as almost invincible, but had they stopped to consider they would have seen that troops who could stand such disaster without panic or protest, were men whose staying qualities were more than a match for them, and who were bound to succeed in the end by force of their intrepidity and immovable courage. But it was the misfortune of the Union army to be poorly commanded.

The warning of President Lincoln concerning the emancipation of slaves was unheeded, and on the 1st of January, 1863, he issued a proclamation for the emancipation of about three million slaves, and announced that black men would be received into the military and naval service of the United States. Twice before emancipation of this nature had been made concerning limited territory—the first one by General Fremont, the second by General David Hunter. On both occasions Lincoln had annulled the order. It may seem strange to many at this day that Lincoln should have delayed so long before declaring emancipation. He was himself opposed to slavery, but his chief desire was to preserve the government. He wished to force the seceding States to return to their allegiance, and he meant to do this before everything else. Two years of the war had passed, therefore, before the main cause of that war was acknowledged by either side. The Confederates, with their strong confidence in their prowess, smiled at the emancipation of the slaves. They did not believe that it could ever be effected. But they were angered and annoyed beyond endurance at the announcement of the President that hereafter persons of color should be used in the army and navy. Previously, the Union forces had shown a consideration which was almost superstitious in this matter. The people of the North had so long respected all Southern claims that even in the hour of conflict they still had regard for them, and were not willing to offend popular prejudice by using the black man on the battle field. When General Hunter had organized a regiment of black troops, designated as the First South Carolina Volunteers, and the first body of negro soldiers mustered in the Union service during the war, there was the greatest alarm in Congress. A representative from Kentucky introduced a resolution asking for information concerning

regiments of fugitive slaves. The Secretary of War referred him to Hunter himself. Hunter said: "No regiment of fugitive slaves has been or is being organized in this department. There is, however, a fine regiment of persons whose late masters are fugitive rebels; men who everywhere fly before the appearance of the Union flag, leaving their servants behind them to shift as best they can for themselves. In the absence of any fugitive master law, the deserted slaves would be wholly without remedy, had not their crime of treason given the slaves right to pursue, capture and bring back these persons of whose protection they had been so suddenly bereft."

But though Lincoln was cautious and slow in stating his position, there was not a man in America who doubted that he would stand by it when once it was made public. The wisdom shown in his great caution was proved by the criticisms which he received, even at the North, for the proclamation. The Democratic ranks were immediately swelled. It was only the men of strong opinions and moral courage who stood by the much-tried President at this time. But fortunately he was not a man who needed the approval or encouragement of others. When once he was sure that he was right, nothing could affect him, and though the criticisms of his friends may have grieved him, they did not alter his course. Thus began the year 1863.

On December 31st and January 2d there was a great battle in the West. The Confederate Congress, in 1862, had passed a conscription act, forcing every man of military age into the ranks. Military age at that time was an expansive period, and boys were taken from school and sent to camps of instruction. General Beauregard had been succeeded by General Bragg, who, with forty thousand men, marched northward into Eastern Kentucky and defeated a Union force near Richmond and another at Munfordsville. He then took the liberty of appointing a Governor for Kentucky, assuming it to be a State of the Confederacy, and forced Kentuckians into his army. As he went through the country he plundered farmers and villages, but, with singular inconsistency, tried to arouse enthusiasm among the Kentuckians. It is said, however, that he did not even secure enough recruits to fill the place of his dead and wounded. He was marching back into Tennessee when General Buell, with about fifty-eight thousand men, hurried after him. At Perryville, October 8, 1862, Bragg turned and gave battle. At first the Union forces suffered severely, and their raw troops were put to a test which they could not stand, but General Philip H. Sheridan, with his experienced men, repelled the assault.

and when night came the Confederates had been driven back. In the night, Bragg moved off with his whole army, leaving one thousand of his wounded behind. General Halleck, at Washington, then planned a campaign for Buell's army in East Tennessee, to which Bragg had retreated. For certain reasons Buell refused to carry out these plans, and he was removed from command, his place being given to General William S. Rosecrans.

Farther south there had been troubles at about the same time. A Confederate army of forty thousand men, under Generals Price and Van Dorn, crossed from Arkansas into Mississippi, in September, with the intention of capturing Grant's position at Corinth, and, breaking through the Union line of defense, to co-operate with Bragg. Iuka was seized by Price, and Grant sent out a force against him under Rosecrans. On the 19th of September the battle of Iuka was fought, after which Price retreated and joined Van Dorn. These tried to capture Corinth, on October 3d, and in the first day's fighting they succeeded in forcing Rosecrans to his intrenchments. But the following morning Rosecrans received reinforcements, and the Confederates were repelled all along the line and driven into a disordered retreat. As Rosecrans neglected at Corinth, as well as at Iuka, to pursue the enemy, Grant dismissed him from service. The Confederates were also displeased with their general. They had been very anxious for the capture of Corinth, since it contained immense quantities of supplies. General Van Dorn was removed and the command of the Confederate troops given to General John C. Pemberton.

Bragg, meanwhile, had taken up an excellent position at Murfreesboro, forty miles from Nashville. Here he fortified a strong position on the shallow, fordable stream known as Stone river. Murfreesboro counted itself quite safe from attack, and indulged in the gayeties which usually follow the arrival of unemployed troops in a town. General H. Morgan, the leader of the famous guerrilla band, was married in Murfreesboro by that ministerial warrior, Leonidas Polk, who had the distinction of being bishop and general at the same time. Jefferson Davis was present at the wedding, and danced with the rest upon the United States flag, with which the floor was carpeted, to signify that the Confederacy had it literally under their feet. This gayety was broken in upon suddenly by the appearance of Rosecrans, with forty-three thousand men, within sight of Bragg's intrenchments. The following day—three days after Christmas—Bragg crossed the river before sunrise, and broke upon the right of the national column. Throughout the

morning success was with the Confederates, but in the afternoon the greater calmness and endurance of the Northern forces began to tell, and when the day closed Rosecrans had not moved from his position, though he had lost many men, twenty-eight guns, and had the uncomfortable consciousness that the enemy's cavalry was between him and his communications. The armies rested by common consent the next day, but, on the second day of the New Year, Rosecrans sent a division across the stream to strike at Bragg's communications. The command of Breckenridge was sent to attack this division and succeeded in driving it back to the river, when Breckenridge was surprised with a terrible artillery fire, and in twenty minutes lost two thousand men. A charge of the Union infantry followed up this advantage and ended the battle of Murfreesboro. Rosecrans hastened to take possession of some high ground with his batteries, with the intention of shelling the town, but the Confederate army retreated. The Union loss in killed and wounded was eight thousand seven hundred and seventy-eight and in prisoners about twenty-eight hundred. Bragg lost ten thousand men.

After Burnside's failure at Fredericksburg he was removed from the command, given a subordinate position, and General Joseph Hooker superseded him. Hooker was a graduate of West Point, had been through the Florida and Mexican Wars, and also the Peninsula campaign with McClellan. He was a man of almost reckless bravery, and had gained the nickname of "Fighting Joe" among the boys. Lincoln eloquently prayed him to "beware of rashness, but with energy and sleepless vigilance, go forward and give us victories." The discipline of the Army of the Potomac was soon restored under Hooker, and as the spring of 1863 opened, the outlook for the Union cause was good. Hooker proposed to cross the Rappahannock and strike Lee's left. He crossed quickly, and, with forty-six thousand men, reached Chancellorsville before Lee was aware of his movements. This place was not a village, but a single house, named after its owner. From it to Fredericksburg was a stretch of open country, and west of it a dense thicket, known as the "Wilderness"—a name which later grew to have a tragic signification. On May 1st Lee brought up nearly his whole army, trying to find out Hooker's exact position. His daring approach seemed to awe Hooker, and so far from acting with rashness, he used too much caution, and drew back some of his more advanced positions. He formed his army in a circle and awaited an attack. His left and centre were strongly posted, but his right was unprotected, and this Lee saw immediately when he opened battle on the morning of the 2d. He sent Jackson

on one of those sudden dashes which were so fatal to his opponents, and they rushed over the crest of a hill upon Hooker's right. Before them came a drove of wild animals scared from their thickets. The Union column broke at that point, and it looked as if the day was likely to turn against them. General Alfred Pleasanton, with two regiments of cavalry and a battery, was ordered to hasten to a high position at Hazel Grove. At the same time a strong force of Confederates made for it. To gain time, Major Peter



UNITED STATES MILITARY TELEGRAPH WAGON.

Keenan, with the Eighth Pennsylvania cavalry, about four hundred strong, was ordered to charge upon the Confederate infantry and delay them a moment till Pleasanton could gain the desired point. Keenan and his men knew that they were ordered to certain death, but they did not hesitate. The enemy stopped, astonished at the audacity of their assaults, and Pleasanton, with his twenty-two guns, gained Hazel Grove, loaded them with double charges of canister and turned a storm of

iron upon the columns of the Confederates. As the day was near its close Stonewall Jackson was killed accidentally by some of his own men.

The next morning, May 3d, the battle was renewed under Stuart, the brilliant young cavalry leader, and Lee attacked in front with all his force. General Hooker was rendered insensible by a shot from a cannon ball that struck the pillar of the Chancellor House, against which he was leaning. After this the Union side fought in broken detachments and without order. In the midst of this Lee learned that the Union division, under Sedgwick, had defeated the opposing force, captured Fredericksburg Heights and was marching upon the Confederate rear. Lee therefore drew off a large detachment of his army and turned upon Sedgwick, who was checked with considerable loss, and crossed the river after nightfall. In the midst of a great storm which followed, the Union army crossed the Rappahannock, leaving their dead and wounded on the battle field. In the battle of Chancellorsville, the Union loss was about seventeen thousand, and the Confederates about thirteen thousand.

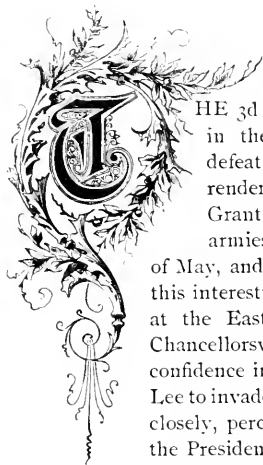
FOR FURTHER READING.

- HISTORY**—Palfrey's "Antietam and Fredericksburg,"
Doubleday's "Chancellorsville and Gettysburg,"
Cook's "Life of Robert E. Lee,"
Hosmer's "The Color Guard,"
FICTION—F. A. Loring's "Two College Friends,"
H. Morford's "The Days of Shoddy,"
H. Morford's "Shoulder Straps,"
H. Morford's "The Coward,"
M. J. Magill's "Women."

CHAPTER XCII.

The Deadly Parallels.

THE BATTLE OF GETTYSBURG AND THE SIEGE OF VICKSBURG.



THE 3d and 4th of July, 1863, are memorable days in the War of Secession. One marked Lee's defeat at Gettysburg, the other Pemberton's surrender at Vicksburg to the invincible Grant. Grant and Sherman had planted their determined armies before the city of Vicksburg in the middle of May, and the country divided its attention between this interesting game at the West, and Lee's aggressions at the East. The triumphs at Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville had given the men of the South great confidence in their powers. Public opinion was forcing Lee to invade the North, and Hooker, who watched him closely, perceived by the 28th of May—and sent word to the President to that effect—that a northern movement might be expected from the Confederates. On the 3d of

June the prophecy was fulfilled.

Hooker learned that the dashing Stuart, with the entire Confederate cavalry, was at Culpepper, and the Northern general therefore hastened to send all of his cavalry, under Pleasanton, with two brigades of infantry, to attack it there. The Union troops advanced in two columns, but failed to unite, and partly through this failure were obliged to withdraw. This engagement is known as the battle of Fleetwood. It taught the Union troops the need for improving their cavalry, and this improvement became rapid and marked until in time the Northern cavalry was vastly superior to that of the South. Hooker was anxious to meet Lee's northern movement with some brilliant action, which should discourage the Confederate army, and inspire the Northern one with confidence. But General Halleck, the military advisor at Washington, was nothing if not cautious, and Hooker's suggestions

were disapproved of and criticised, till that important general threw up his command. General George Gordon Meade was appointed in his place. Meade was in his prime, was a good engineer, a determined general and a man of experience. He viewed the disposition of the Confederate force with some alarm. Longstreet was skirting the Blue Ridge. A large part of the Confederate troops were in the Shenandoah valley. The Confederate cavalry had already crossed the Potomac, and the people of that region were in terror. Harper's Ferry was threatened, and Meade feared that the eleven thousand men who defended it would be caught in the same trap that Mills' men had been ensnared in previously. The first thing which he did upon his appointment was, therefore, to order the evacuation of Harper's Ferry, and to hasten the garrison to Frederick, as a reserve. As soon as General Lee realized that Meade was inclined to act with decision, he hastened to call his forces together at Gettysburg. This town was approached by many different roads, and was, therefore, a good point for concentration. Meade followed after Lee cautiously, intending to bring on an engagement somewhere near Gettysburg. At this time—the last of June—Lee had seventy-three thousand five hundred men, and Meade about eighty-two thousand, while both generals counted eleven thousand cavalry, and were possessed of more cannon than they had any need for. The country around Gettysburg is broken into many ridges which run north and south. On one of these ridges, just west of the village, there stood a theological seminary, and between this ridge and the next is Willoughby Run, a quiet little stream. Here a detachment of the Union army, under General Reynolds, encountered the Confederates on the 29th of June. At the very opening of the engagement General Reynolds was killed by a sharpshooter, and the command fell upon Abner Doubleday. Both forces were anxious to reach a high piece of ground which was covered with woods, and commanded the field. The "Iron Brigade," a most dreaded body of Union troops, succeeded in capturing it, and the battle began in earnest. The struggle was largely for the road which led from that point to Gettysburg, and around this the fight was especially obstinate. The Union line was indiscreetly stretched out and weakened. Lee was being continually reinforced and succeeded in breaking through the centre of the line, throwing a part of the Union forces into disorder. But the retreat was made slowly, and the ambulances and artillery protected. In the midst of this confusion General Hancock came with orders from Meade to assume command. His presence restored

confidence, and he hastened to form a line along the crest of a ridge, placing all the available troops in position. This closed the first day's battle. During the night the Union troops were reinforced. Lee spent the hours of rest urging his generals to get the army together as rapidly as possible, saying that he did not wish to attack the Union troops in their strong position on the heights till all his forces were up. The second day's battle began with a mistaken arrangement of troops on the part of the Union forces. Between the two great ridges ran another ridge, which is often described as being like the diagonal portion of a capital N. General Sickles advanced his men to this diagonal ridge. The position was an unfortunate one. This was perceived immediately by the Confederates, and made the first point of attack. General Sickles lost a leg, and the situation of the Union troops was made still more difficult by this catastrophe. The Union line was driven back, but only to force it into a stronger and better position from which it could not be dislodged.

That day is full of stirring events. One of them was the fight between two brigades to reach Little Round Top, a height on the ridge which formed the Union line. General Weed's brigade, of New York, fought against Hood's Texans for the position—the men engaging in one of the most frightful hand-to-hand contests of the war. The men of both armies lay scattered dead and dying among the rocks. All attempt to fire was abandoned, and the fight was kept up with clubbed muskets, bayonets and stones. Four distinguished Union officers were killed, among them General Weed. Finally, a large part of the Texans were captured and the rest forced to retreat.

After the sun had set and the twilight was deepening, occurred the last thrilling incident of the day. It was a charge of Sumpter Hill, by two Confederate brigades, led by what was known as the Louisiana Tigers. They had never failed at a charge, and were determined not to do so now, although they were facing a perfect storm of artillery and musketry. They actually marched up in the face of that fire till they reached the guns, and made a hand-to-hand fight for them. The Union troops were reinforced at this moment, and the Confederates fled down the hill. Of the over-valorous Tigers, twelve hundred out of the seventeen hundred had fallen, and they were known no more among the organizations of the Confederacy.

On the morning of the third day Lee decided to try piercing the centre of Meade's line, since he had tried both flanks and failed. Meade anticipated him, however, and attacked early in the morning.



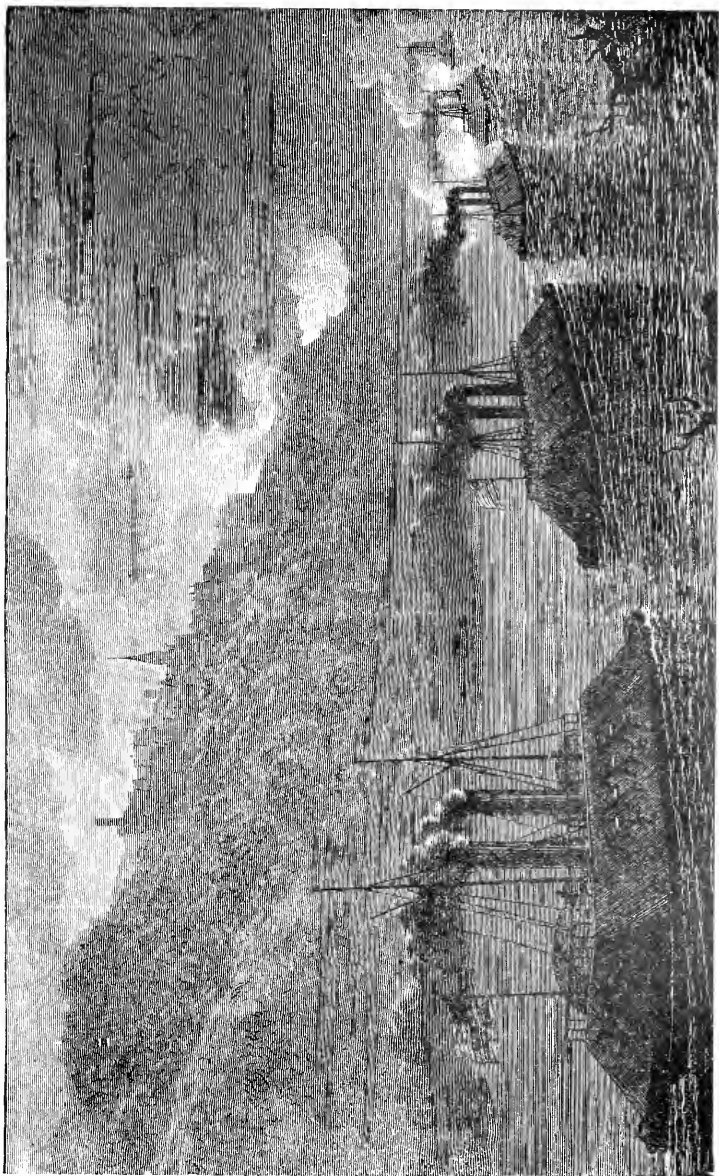
GENERAL PICKETT'S CHARGE AGAINST THE UNION FORCES AT GETTYSBURG.

Once more the lines were drawn up on the two parallel ridges, and the day began with a terrible artillery duel. For hours there was nothing but a deafening roar, a blinding storm of iron under a cloud of smoke. At length Meade's chief of artillery ordered the fire to stop, that the guns might cool. Lee naturally supposed that the enemy had exhausted his artillery, and fourteen thousand of his best men moved forward steadily for a desperate charge. The Union guns reopened fire, and plowed through the Confederate columns. But these columns did not halt. They closed up and marched on over that mile of ground which lay between the ridges. All along the main line of the Union troops lay an infantry force, and as the Confederates neared, these sprang to their feet and launched a terrific volley of musketry into the right flank. The noble columns of the Confederates began to melt, but among them were those who would not yield. They came to the very breastworks and some of them leaped over them. But they saw at last that their enthusiasm had carried them too far, and some of them threw themselves upon the ground and held up their hands for quarter. The fighting stopped. The Union troops took many prisoners and battle-flags, and rested to care for their wounded and bury their dead. There had also been a movement between the cavalry, in which neither side had gained much. This closed the 3d of July. On the 4th, Lee began his retreat, in the midst of a terrible storm and over roads which were almost impassable. With them went the terrible train of wounded, suffering past all expression in the storm. To the soldierly mind it seems reprehensible that Meade did not pursue them; to the merely humane mind it seems as if it would have been little less than fiendish to have done so.

Gettysburg was the turning point of the war. It is said that the Confederates lost nearly thirty thousand. The Union loss was twenty-three thousand one hundred and ninety killed, wounded and missing. The discrepancy in numbers was not so great as to make the cause of the South seem hopeless, but there were peculiar characteristics in the struggle and the time which made the men of the South fear, and the men of the North hope, that the Rebellion would soon be the "lost cause."

It is necessary now to look toward the West, and follow up the course of events which led to the surrender of Vicksburg. This city stands on a high bluff which overlooks the Mississippi. That mighty river makes a sharp bend at this point, and sweeps about a long, narrow peninsula. This place commanded two railroads, which were of

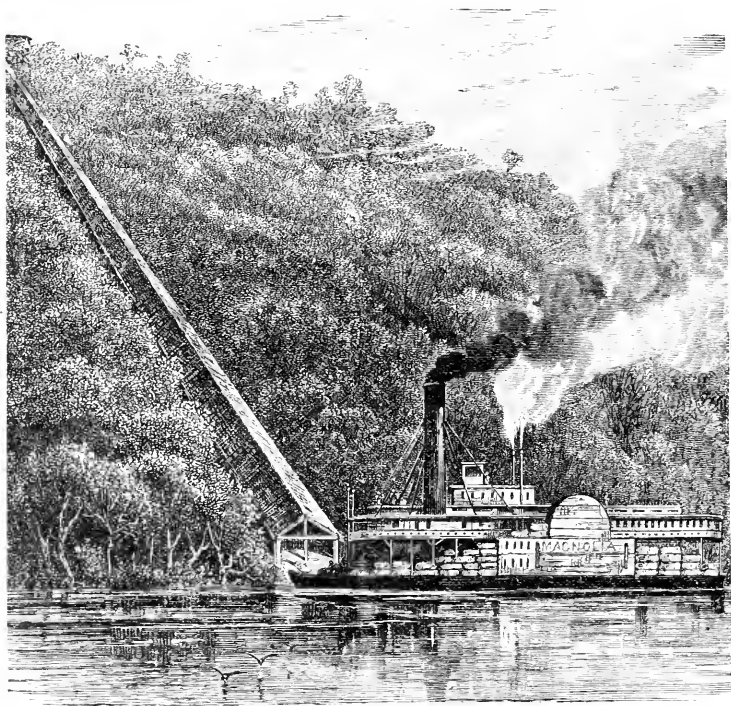
great importance to the Confederates, and as they had lost New Orleans, Baton Rouge and Memphis, it was of the greatest importance that they should hold Vicksburg. Farragut had gone up the river and demanded its surrender, after the taking of New Orleans. The demand was refused, and as the admiral had no land force to work with him, he could not enforce it. After this it was made strong with fortifications. Extensive batteries were planted on the bluffs, and it became almost impossible for any sort of craft to run down the river. General Grant received a dispatch from General Halleck on the 12th of November, 1862, placing him in command of all troops sent to his department, and telling him to fight the enemy wherever he pleased. After a consultation with Sherman, Grant decided to move south with his thirty thousand men and fight an equal force commanded by General Joseph C. Pemberton, on the Tallahatchie. Sherman, with his thirty thousand, was to move from Memphis down the eastern bank of the Mississippi, and with the assistance of Porter and his gunboats, try to capture Vicksburg from the rear. Grant then began moving slowly, wishing to keep his enemy as far north as possible, and Sherman and Porter hastened to carry out their orders. But the plan was entirely ruined by the effective opposition of two Confederate cavalry detachments, under Generals Van Dorn and Forrest. Grant had over two million dollars' worth of supplies at Holly Springs, and on the 20th of December Van Dorn made a dash at this place, capturing it and its garrison. He also burned the stores and the railroad buildings. Forrest tore up a portion of the railroad which lay north of Grant's army, thus cutting off all communication with the North. Grant was therefore obliged to give up his part of the plan, and move back toward Memphis. Sherman and Porter did not learn of this disaster, and went on with their preparations. On Christmas day the Union troops were well placed and began preparing for attack. A large part of them were opposite the bluffs north of Vicksburg. These bluffs they crowned with artillery, and as Sherman felt sure that Grant was holding Pemberton, and that the force on Vicksburg Heights could not be large, he had no hesitation in opening attack. On the 29th of December the battle was opened with a heavy artillery fire, followed by musketry and a rush of the men. The guns at the foot of the bluff swept them, and a cross fire from the heights poured down upon them. But quite a large detachment of Union troops succeeded in reaching the bluff. Once there they could not return, and they scooped niches in the bank with their hands and hid themselves, while the enemy came to the very edge of the hill and



fired down upon them. They were obliged to remain in this very uncertain position until nightfall. Sherman lost one thousand eight hundred and forty-two men in this assault, while the Confederates suffered but slightly. The other plans which he laid for assault were defeated by accidents of weather, and as he was in a country which was inundated with water every year to the depth of ten feet, he re-embarked his men and steamed down the river, anxious to know what had happened to Grant.

At the beginning of 1863 General McClelland was given command of the two corps commanded by Generals Sherman and Morgan. The first movement made by this united force was against Arkansas Post. This was a Confederate hold on the Arkansas, which made it dangerous for boats on the Mississippi, near the mouth of the former river. Sherman saw there could be little safety till the post was captured. He therefore persuaded McClelland to attack it with the whole army, including Porter's command. On the 10th of January they were below the fort, and had driven back the pickets. The Confederates aroused themselves for defense, and spent the night throwing up a long line of works. The next day the Union troops swept forward to the attack and were aided by the gunboats on the river. This fire continued but a few moments, when white flags and rags fluttered all along the Confederate lines. Immediately the firing ceased, and the garrison, numbering about forty-eight hundred, were taken prisoners. The fort was destroyed. McClelland was not able to pursue his plans further, for Grant commanded him to hasten back to the Mississippi. Grant had now been given personal command over the operations on the Mississippi. His first act was to divide his force into four corps, commanded by Generals McPherson, Hurlburt, Sherman and McClelland. Hurlburt's force was left to hold the lines east of Memphis, and all the other troops were joined in the river expedition. The plan was now to besiege Vicksburg. To follow up the forty-seven days of siege would be tedious and painful. Now the men dug canals, now they mined. At times an expedition picked its way through the deadly swamps by the light of tallow candles. Again they were hemmed in the barricaded rivers, with the enemy in front and behind them. Grant tried half a dozen plans, and failed in all. The Confederates showed not only courage, but the greatest ingenuity, and they kept themselves apprised of Grant's every movement. On the night of April 16th, the Union fleet ran by the batteries of Vicksburg, and returned the heavy fire directed against them. Grant searched for some time before he found a suitable place to

cross the Mississippi, and finally decided upon Bruinsburg. McClelland's corps went first, and marched on Fort Gibson on the 30th of April. The enemy was found in a strong position three miles west of that fort, and after a hard day's fight, the Confederates retreated, burning their bridges behind them. Grant established his base at Grand Gulf,



VIEW OF A COTTON CHUTE.

where there were fortifications which the Confederates had deserted. He sent a division after the retreating Confederates, and pressed on with all the rest of his army. These numbered about forty-one thousand men, and were increased a few days later to forty-five thousand. Pemberton had about fifty-one thousand.

Simultaneous with these preparations was Grierson's brilliant raid

through the Southwestern States. Colonel Benjamin H. Grierson commanded a cavalry of seventeen hundred men. These rode through the State of Mississippi doing what damage they could to bridges, railroads and supplies, and dismaying the people by their rapid and unexpected movements. For sixteen days they plunged through rivers, swamps, forests and fields, and at the end of that time rode into Baton Rouge, with the men half dead from fatigue and lack of sleep.

Grant engaged in a number of heavy skirmishes as he moved toward Vicksburg, and took possession of two towns, in one of which were the factories which turned out goods for the Confederacy. These Sherman absolutely destroyed. On the 15th of May occurred the battle of Champion's Hill, which was the bloodiest of the campaign. At the end of the battle Pemberton retreated across the Big Black river, leaving his dead and wounded behind him—over three thousand. Another heavy skirmish occurred on the bank of the Big Black river, and the Union troops added eighteen guns to the thirty which they had captured at Champion's Hill. Bridges were now constructed that the men might cross the stream. These were made of rafts, of trees and cotton bales, and Sherman and Grant sat side by side on a log, watching their men as they passed by night over the swaying structures. Vicksburg was well protected on the land, as well as on the water side, and Pemberton hastened to strengthen himself in the village, while Grant followed close behind. Sherman went to Haine's Bluff, where he had been defeated before. The other commands stretched out from Sherman's left. Grant feared an attack from the rear, for General Johnston's force was behind him, and he therefore hastened to make an assault, with the intention of carrying the works by storm. This was on the 22d of May. His men rushed up the breastworks and succeeded in planting some flags, but not in holding them, and Grant was finally forced to admit the assault a failure, and withdraw his men. Then he began the siege by regular approaches. Day and night the guns poured shells into the city, till the citizens dug caves in the soft clay banks and took refuge in them. Very hungry were the people of Vicksburg, and still hungrier the exhausted soldiers, but it was not till the 4th of July, 1863, that Pemberton yielded to the demand for unconditional surrender. The Confederate army was fed from the knapsacks of the Union troops, and immediately paroled and furnished with means for reaching their homes.

The news of this important victory was received everywhere in the North with the greatest satisfaction and demonstrations of rejoicing

by the supporters of the Union cause. It was, indeed, an important event in the history of the war, as it gave the Union army undisputed possession of the Mississippi river to the Gulf.

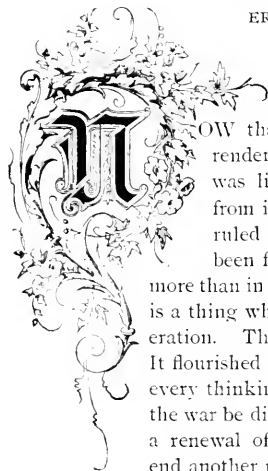
FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY**—Bates' "Battle of Gettysburg."
Coppee's "Grant and His Campaigns."
Glazier's "Three Years in the Federal Cavalry."
Headley's "Grant's Sherman."
Longborough's "Cave Life in Vicksburg."
Bullock's "Secret Service of the Confederacy."
Burnham's "United States Secret Service."
FICTION—W. H. Peck's "Confederate Flag on the Ocean."
M. Remick's "Great Battle Year."
M. Remick's "Forward with the Flag."
POETRY—Bret Harte's "John Burns of Gettysburg."

CHAPTER XCIII.

The Martyrs.

WHY THE WAR DID NOT END AFTER GETTYSBURG—THE NEW YORK
RIOTS—ATROCITIES IN THE SOUTH—SOUTH-
ERN PRISON PENS.



NOW that two great Confederate armies had surrendered it would seem to the observer as if there was little excuse for continuing the war. But from its beginning the American nation has been ruled by popular opinion. Most of its wars have been for principle, and it has delighted in nothing more than in great controversies. The popular conscience is a thing which has constantly to be taken into consideration. The "Southern idea" was not yet conquered. It flourished in the North as well as in the South, and every thinking soldier and politician knew that, should the war be discontinued at this point, it would only mean a renewal of the old troublous legislation, and in the end another resort to arms. Practically, the Confederacy was becoming weak. Maryland, Kentucky, Tennessee, Missouri and West Virginia, all slaves States, sympathized with the Government. The largest city of the Confederacy had long been held by Union troops. But it was not territory and men alone which were to be conquered, but ideas as well. In the North, a large number of men made themselves conspicuous by leading a party opposed to the Government, and by delivering speeches which were as treasonable as they were heartless. Among these was ex-President Franklin Pierce, of New Hampshire. These men misrepresented the Union cause, the patient, and much-tried President, and the spirit which prompted a continuation of the war. These speeches inflamed the common people, and brought about, among other catastrophes, the New York riots.

Drafts had been ordered in several of the States, for the volunteer

system had not latterly furnished enough men. A law provided that any man whose name was drawn, and who did not wish to go into the service, could get a substitute, or pay three hundred dollars to the Government and be released. In the South, every man could easily

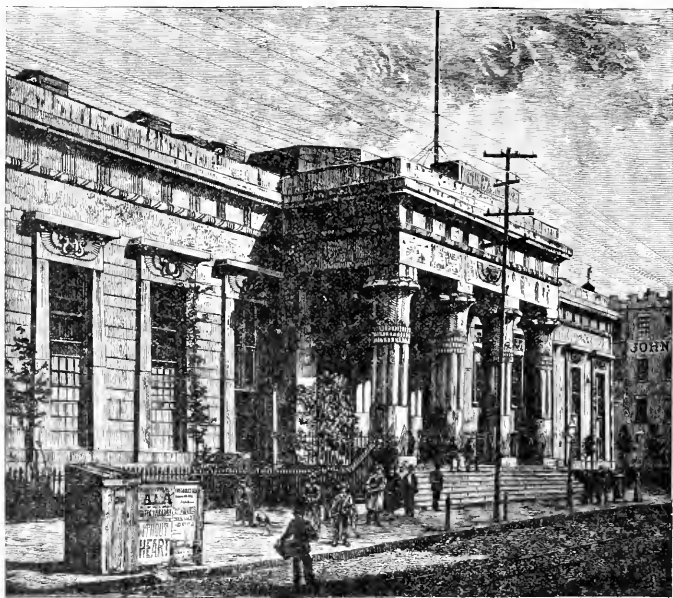


HORACE GREELEY.

go into the service, for there were slaves at home to keep the farms tilled and the stores open, but in the North it was necessary that a large portion of the men should always remain at home, and the substitute system was arranged to accommodate this need. The opposition party

misinterpreted this arrangement and said that the Government demanded three hundred dollars, or the life of the man whom it drafted. On the other hand, the arrangement had been made simply as a protection for these men, and when the clause was repealed to satisfy the opposition party, the price of substitutes went from three hundred to a thousand dollars—a sum which few workingmen were able to pay. In April, 1863, a levy of three hundred thousand men was called for, with the alternative of a draft, in case the quotas were not filled by volunteers. That of New York fell short, and a draft was begun. New York was largely Democratic, and several of the most influential papers were in favor of the opposition. From the very beginning of the draft, excitement was noticeable in the city, and the marshals who tried to take the names and addresses of those subject to call were threatened with violence. On the 13th of July the draft-wheel was set in motion, at the corner of Third avenue and Forty-sixth street, and in a short time the building was surrounded by a surging, loud-voiced crowd. In a short time they had stopped the street cars and made a blockade in the streets. They finally entered the marshal's office, driving the policemen and officers out at the back windows. They then burned the building and prevented the firemen from throwing any water upon it. The superintendent of police was stoned and clubbed till he was a shapeless mass of bruises, and the defence of the city for the remainder of the riot was conducted by Commissioner Thomas C. Acton and Inspector Daniel Carpenter. Another marshal's office was entered in the same way, and the whole block of stores about it was burned. The police and the mob encountered each other through the day in a street fight, and the police were defeated. Some of them were stabbed by people in the crowd, others stoned, and many shot. The mob succeeded, before the close of the afternoon, in getting possession of the gun factory. As evening approached a great procession marched down Broadway, with "no draft" inscribed upon its banners, and armed in a most motley manner. Inspector Carpenter, with two hundred policemen, who had orders to take no prisoners, but to strike quick and hard, met them on Broadway. A few minutes of fierce fighting followed, and the mob fled. For two days longer the riot continued. The mob murdered eleven negroes, who had committed no offence except that of being black. They sacked and burned the Colored Orphan Asylum, and the two hundred little children barely escaped by the rear doors, as the mob broke in at the front. They surged around the office of the *Tribune*, which was edited by Horace Greeley, and tried to set fire to it, but the printers ran board

troughs out of the windows with the intention of dropping bombs from them upon the crowd below. The mob guessed at their ominous significance and hastened away. On the second day a small military force assisted the police. When it was seen that no quarter could be expected from the mob, the police and military fought without compunction, and killed wherever they could. In one disreputable neighborhood, the police were fired upon from the windows and roofs,



THE TOMBS PRISON, NEW YORK CITY.

and they entered the tenement houses in squads, searched them from top to bottom, killed the people with the bayonet or club, and flung them out of the windows or over the bannisters. Those three days were indescribably horrible. Many of the incidents will not bear relating. Colonel Henry J. O'Brien, of the Eleventh New York Volunteers, was captured by the mob, and tortured in the most terrible way for hours, and finally killed by some maddened women. It was thought

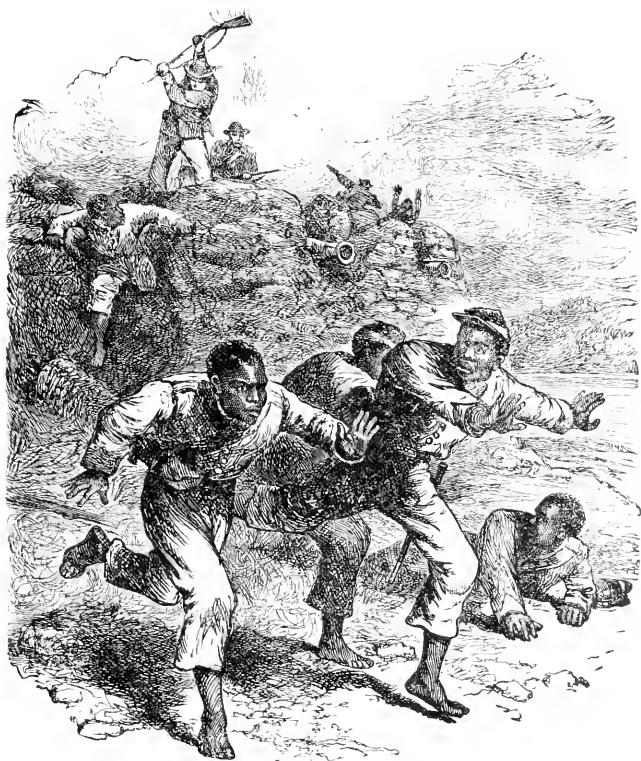
that men of wealth and standing were disguised among those who led the mob. By the end of the three days, between two and three million dollars' worth of property had been destroyed, fifty policemen had been injured, and eighteen people killed by the rioters. On the other hand more than twelve hundred of the mob had been slain.

Throughout the South the cruelest outrages were perpetrated upon Union men who chanced to live in a Southern district. It is said that in Texas alone, between two and three thousand citizens were hanged, who were known to sympathize with the Union cause, and to refuse to uphold secession. The Governor of Texas permitted these barbarities, and encouraged the people of the State to commit them. One woman was hanged to a tree in sight of her little children for wishing that the Union army would hurry to Texas and end the war, that her husband might come home. In the border States, these cruelties were very frequent, especially in East Tennessee. Not only were the lives of quiet citizens taken by men in the Confederate uniform, but houses were burned, children tortured, and women subjected to every sort of suffering. The papers of the South advised "bushwhacking," and every sort of partisan fight. The black flag was not unfrequently raised, and the people who fought under it gave no quarter to any one, regardless of sex, age or condition. The Confederate Congress went so far as to organize bands of partisan rangers, who were entitled to the same pay, rations and quarters as other soldiers. These were known as Guerrillas, and their purpose was to terrorize the country and murder and steal, but to claim the protection of the Confederate government, as honorable prisoners of war, whenever they were captured. The very least of the crimes committed by these bands was to destroy everything in and about the houses by which they passed, and to steal the horses and cattle. That there were instances of intolerance at the North, no one pretends to deny, but it principally took the form of social ostracism.

It seems hardly necessary to go over the dark chapter which records the doings in Southern prisons. The sufferings of the men there were notorious. The civilized world has never seen such premeditated and deliberate cruelty. Most of the commissioned officers captured by the Confederate army were placed in Libby warehouse, at Richmond, and at Columbia, South Carolina. The non-commissioned officers and privates were kept in camps, at Andersonville and Milan, Georgia; at Tyler, Texas, at Salisbury, North Carolina, at Florence, South Carolina, and at Belle Isle, in the James River, at Richmond. With the exception of Libby, these were open stockades, with but little shelter.

That at Andersonville, which is particularly famous for its horrors, consisted of twenty acres of ground, afterwards enlarged to thirty, enclosed in a palisade of pine logs fifteen feet high. One hundred and twenty feet outside was another palisade, and between the two walked the guards. A slight railing, known as the "dead line," ran inside of the inner stockade, about twenty feet from it. Any prisoner who came too near this line was immediately shot. A tiny stream of slow-running water was the only supply the men had for drinking, cooking or washing. There was no need for selecting the stockades in a place without trees, as there were plenty of trees within sight. The whole was built under the direction of General William S. Winder, who had stated it as his intention to build the pen so as to destroy more Yankees than could be destroyed at the front. Mr. Davis and the Confederate Congress knew of the sufferings of the prisoners at Andersonville, and resisted the appeals of more humane men among the Confederates to have them lessened. At one time there were thirty-three thousand prisoners in the stockade, which gave a space of about four feet square to each man. Here the men wasted to skeletons, and died of the most terrible diseases. Many of them went mad, others became imbecile; many were shot wantonly; not unfrequently they walked to the dead line for the express purpose of inviting death. They called it "being exchanged." Many escaped from the various prisons, but though they were aided by the negroes, they were usually tracked and brought back. Bloodhounds were kept for this especial purpose. By 1864, the prisons were crowded to overflowing, owing to the fact that exchanges of prisoners had been stopped. This was because the Confederate authorities would not exchange any black soldiers or their white officers captured in battle, and the United States Government, being bound to protect equally all who entered its service, refused to exchange at all. The people of the South never felt it necessary to show any honor in fighting the blacks. This was shown in a most cowardly and inhuman way, at Fort Pillow, April 12, 1864. This fort was forty miles above Memphis, on the Mississippi. It stood upon a high bluff with a ravine on each side. A little village and some Government buildings nestled in the lower ravine. The place had a garrison of five hundred and fifty men, nearly half of whom were colored, commanded by Major L. F. Booth. At sunrise the fort was attacked by the Confederate General Forrest, with five thousand men. A brave advance was made, which was assisted by the gunboat *New Era*, which swept the ravine. Major Booth was killed, but the fort stood firm, and the besiegers finally sent in a flag of

truce demanding a surrender. Under cover of this flag they moved up into positions nearer the fort, and then sent in a second flag. Surrender was refused, and they took advantage of their close position to the fort to rush over the works with a cry of "no quarter." The garrison threw



FLIGHT OF NEGROES FROM FORT PELLOW.

down their arms and surrendered, but no mercy was shown them. The sick and wounded were murdered in their tents; the women and children were shot or put to the sword. At least three hundred persons were butchered after the surrender. It goes without saying that the

more honorable officers of the Confederate army were as shocked as the rest of the civilized world at Forrest's treacherous action.

Another reason that the exchange of prisoners had been discontinued was that the Confederates did not observe their paroles. The thirty thousand men taken by Grant at Vicksburg, and the six thousand taken by Banks at Port Hudson, in July, 1863, were released on parole, with the understanding that they were not to fight again during the war unless properly exchanged. Three months later the Confederate commissioner of exchange declared them all released from their parole, and they were restored to the ranks.

President Lincoln's kind heart was greatly distressed over the complications of this prison question. On one hand he grieved to think of the thousands of men actually rotting in the pestiferous Southern prisons, and on the other hand, he objected to exchanging the well-fed Confederate prisoners for the skeletons sent up from the Southern stockades. In vain did the people of the North try to send supplies to their suffering friends in Libby and Andersonville, and the rest of the prisons. The supplies seldom or never reached the men, and at Libby, where the boxes for the prisoners arrived at the rate of three hundred a week, they were packed up in warehouses within sight of the famished and shivering wretches who could not reach the things prepared for them. The total number of soldiers and citizens captured by the Confederate armies during the war was 188,145. About half of these were actually confined in prisons, where the number of death was 36,401. The number of Confederates captured by the Northern forces was 476,169, of whom 227,570 were actually confined. The percentage of death in the Confederate prisons was over thirty-eight; in the Northern prisons it was thirteen and five one-hundredths. That the Confederate soldier was often without necessary provisions is sometimes urged as an excuse for the treatment of the prisoners in his hands. But if prisoners could not be provided for, then they should not have been taken, and it should be remembered, too, that the prisoners would not have suffered nearly so much as they did, had the supplies sent them from the North been delivered.

FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY**—Foote's "Fort Pillow Massacre,"
 Burbiere's "Scraps from the Prison Table,"
 Harding's "Belle Boyd in Camp and Prison,"
 Glazier's "Capture, Prison-Pen and Escape,"
 Stuart's "Sufferings of Prisoners of War,"
 Cavada's "Libby Life,"
 Harris' "Prison Life in Richmond,"
FICTION—Anna Dickinson's "What Answer,"
 Mrs. Terhune's "Sunny Bank,"
 J. T. Trowbridge's "Cudjo's Cave."

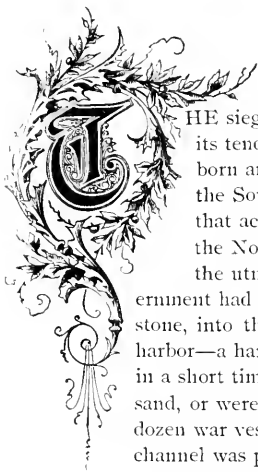


BOMBARDMENT OF FORT SUMTER BY THE UNION FLEET.

CHAPTER XCIV.

The Swamp Angel.

THE SIEGE OF CHARLESTON—DUPONT'S DEFEAT—GILMORE'S SIEGE—
THE "SWAMP ANGEL"—MORGAN'S RAIDS.



THE siege of Charleston touched the Confederacy at its tenderest point. The idea of secession had been born and nursed in Charleston, and the people of the South felt an exceeding tenderness for it on that account. For the same reasons the people of the North were especially desirous to have it suffer the utmost penalty of war. At one time the Government had sunk several old whale ships, loaded with stone, into the channel, for the purpose of closing the harbor—a harbor most useful to the Confederacy. But in a short time these old hulks sank harmlessly into the sand, or were swept away, and it was necessary to keep a dozen war vessels to sustain the blockade. As the main channel was protected by Confederate batteries, this was no easy matter. After a time this channel was closed by the occupation by Union troops of Morris' Island, but even this did not keep the blockade runners from slipping in by the other passes. The blockading vessels were openly attacked in January, 1863.

The attack was made by two Confederate iron-clads, which soon disabled two Union vessels and were only driven away when the rest of the fleet came to their aid. The Government was now more determined than ever to capture the port, and use the harbor as a refuge for Union vessels. A strong fleet was fitted out for this purpose, and placed under command of Rear-Admiral S. F. DuPont. This fleet consisted of seven monitors, an iron-clad frigate, an iron-clad ram, and several wooden gunboats. Choosing a fortunate day, DuPont steamed in to attack the forts on April 7, 1863.

Nothing had been left undone for the defense of the city. Numerous batteries had been erected. Fort Sumpter was occupied, and many powerful guns of English manufacture placed where they would be of the most use. Piles and chains obstructed the channels, which were otherwise endangered to the Union troops by innumerable torpedoes, some of which were arranged to explode whenever a vessel should run against them, while others were to be fired by electric wires from the forts. The main channel between Fort Moultrie and Fort Sumpter was crossed by a heavy cable supported by empty barrels. In the south channel a wide opening had been left in the row of piles, and offered a temptation to the Union vessels, which it was hoped they could not resist, for beneath the water were several tons of powder connected with an electric wire. These dangers were not unsuspected by DuPont, but he had no hesitation in sending his monitor *Wechawken* out on the morning of April 17th, to prove what the situation might be. As soon as the *Wechawken* had become slightly entangled among the network of chains—she was incumbered with a great raft pushed before her to explode the torpedoes—the batteries opened all around her, and she and the other monitors which hurried to her aid were the center of a terrific shower of iron and bursting shells. One monitor, the *Kocuk*, which had approached quite near to the enemy, was struck nearly one hundred times. That evening she sank in an inlet. Most of the other vessels were badly injured, and the fleet had to confess itself defeated.

Two months later the Union forces had a victory on the sea which somewhat counterbalanced this defeat. The *Atlanta*, a Confederate ironclad, was sent out to sink the monitors and raise the blockade of Charleston. She dropped down the channel on June 17th, and following her came two steamers loaded with citizens, among whom were many ladies. These felt a very natural interest in her, as the ladies of Charleston had contributed their jewels to pay for her completion. The *Wechawken* was the first monitor to approach her. Five shots were fired from her enormous eleven-inch and fifteen-inch guns. Those five shots, each directed at a vital point of the *Atlanta*, disabled her, and she hung out a white flag and surrendered. DuPont's fleet took her to Philadelphia, where she was exhibited as a curiosity. She was provisioned for a long cruise, and carried a huge torpedo from the end of a beam thirty feet long, projecting from her bow under water.

Shortly after this, General Quincy A. Gilmore was sent from the North, with a large force, to take the city of Charleston. This city, bordered by miles of swampy ground, had many natural protections

against an assaulting enemy. Gilmore decided to approach the city by way of Folly and Morris Islands, where he could be protected by the monitors. His first work was to erect powerful batteries on Folly Island. On the most northern point of Folly Island was the Confederate battery Gregg. South of this was Fort Wagner, and still farther south were other works. Gilmore's battery on Folly Island had been erected behind a grove of trees, and on the morning of July 10th, these were suddenly cut down, and Gilmore opened fire upon the most southerly work on Morris Island, while the fleet—now commanded by Admiral Dahlgren—bombarded Fort Wagner. Troops were landed under protection of this fire, but as the day was unbearably hot, no advance was made on Fort Wagner until the following morning. The assault was repulsed and the Union troops retired to their earthworks.

A week later another assault was made, being led by the first regiment of colored troops (the Fifty-fourth Massachusetts) that had ever been raised on the authorization that accompanied the proclamation of emancipation. They led the advance by their own request, with an evident desire to settle, once for all, the question of negro bravery. Though fire from all the Confederate batteries was opened upon them and their ranks thinned every second, they marched steadily on, crossed the ditch before Fort Wagner waist-deep in water, while musketry poured down upon them and hand-grenades were exploded in their midst, and even climbed up to the rampart. Here they were hurled back. Their young commander, Colonel Robert G. Shaw, and fifteen hundred of their men were killed. The experiment was too costly to repeat. General Gilmore now approached Fort Wagner by regular parallels. By August 17th, a dozen breaching batteries of enormous rifle guns were established and directed against Fort Sumpter, which at the end of a week was a shapeless mass of ruins. The parallels were pushed forward still further toward Fort Wagner, partly through ground so low that the higher tides washed over it. The ironclad frigate *New Ironsides* assisted in the bombardment, and strong calcium lights were thrown upon the fort, and kept an eternal day there. The Confederates suddenly abandoned Fort Wagner, and Battery Gregg, at the north of Morris Island, was also deserted. Fort Sumpter still furnished a desolate shelter for some of the Confederate infantry, and these defended it against a few hundred sailors from the Union fleet, who tried to capture it. To bombard the city itself was the next move. General Gilmore selected a site on the western side of Morris Island, and placed the work in the hands of a captain who was told that he must not fail. The

ground was soft mud sixteen feet deep, and the task of establishing a battery there seemed impossible. But piles were driven and a platform laid upon them, a parapet built of sixteen thousand bags of sand, and an eight-inch rifle gun was dragged across the swamp and placed upon the platform. All of this work was done in the night, and when accomplished was still at the disadvantage of being five miles from Charleston. But the "swamp angel," as the soldiers called the gun, would be able to reach the lower part of the city. Late in August it opened fire. As a protection to the city, the Confederate authorities selected from their prisoners fifty officers, and placed them in a district reached by the shells. With what mingled feelings these imprisoned Union officers awaited the first rumble of the "swamp angel" can be imagined. By placing an equal number of Confederate officers under fire, the Government forced the removal of its own. At the thirty-sixth discharge the "swamp angel" burst, and was never replaced.

So wide was the theatre of action in the Rebellion that it is impossible to make a consecutive story of it, since it is constantly necessary to return and take up the broken threads of the narrative at neglected points.

In the West, during the spring and summer of 1863, there were other events of interest besides Grant's siege of Vicksburg. In a war of less magnitude they would have been of great interest. As it was, they were thought little of, and soon forgotten. For weeks Generals Rosecrans and Bragg sat warily watching each other. Detachments from both armies made destructive raids and opposed each other in numerous minor engagements. Morgan, the Confederate guerrilla, won a reputation for his raid across Ohio, with a force of three thousand cavalry. After committing many atrocities, he was at last met and defeated by the home guards of Ohio. The incidents of his raids are romantic, and have been the subjects of many poems and tales.

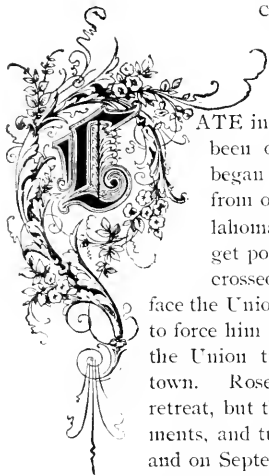
FOR FURTHER READING :

- HISTORY—Batten's "Two Years in the United States Army."
 Early's "Last Year of the War."
 Pollard's "Last Year of the War."
 FICTION—J. T. Trowbridge's "The Three Scouts."
 J. T. Trowbridge's "The Drummer Boy."
 W. H. Thomas' "Running the Blockade."
 POETRY—George H. Boker's "Black Regiment."
 Phoebe Cary's "Hero of Fort Wagner."

CHAPTER XCV.

“The River of the Dead.”

CAMPAIGN AT THE WEST BETWEEN GENERALS ROSECRANS AND
BRAGG—BATTLE OF CHICKAMAUGA—BATTLE OF CHAT-
TANOOGA—THE SANITARY AND CHRISTIAN
COMMISSIONERS.



LATE in the summer of 1863, Rosecrans, who had been quietly keeping Bragg on the defensive, began to move. He forced Bragg to fall back from one point to another, all the way from Tulahoma to Chattanooga. Rosecrans wished to get possession of Chattanooga, and when Bragg crossed the Tennessee, and once more turned to face the Union army at that point, Rosecrans set down to force him out of it. This he did by a strategy, and the Union troops hastened to take possession of the town. Rosecrans supposed that Bragg was in full retreat, but the Confederate general received reinforcements, and turning at Lafayette, waited for Rosecrans, and on September 19th and 20th was fought the battle of Chickamauga, on the river of that name. Longstreet had joined Bragg on the 18th, and the latter general now had about seventy thousand men under his command. Rosecrans had about fifty-five thousand. Bragg was the attacking party. His plan was to make a feint on the Union right, and at the same time to fall heavily upon the left, crush it, seize the roads that led to Chattanooga, and thus shut off Rosecrans' supplies. But the Union left was commanded by General George H. Thomas, who is said to have been one of the best corps commanders produced by either side in the whole war, and especially formidable in a fight where stubbornness and endurance were the qualities most needed. Throughout the day there was a series of bloody charges. General Leonidas Polk was directly opposed to Thomas, and

he led on his men fiercely hour after hour. Upon both sides there was terrible mortality, and large numbers of prisoners were taken. When night closed the situation was altered but little. The next day the battle continued to sway back and forth between Polk and Thomas. In the afternoon, however, the tide of battle took another direction. A fatal gap was made in the right wing of the Union lines, brought about by a carelessly written and misinterpreted order. Longstreet hastened to pour six divisions of his men through this gap. Rosecrans became bewildered, and drove fiercely to Chattanooga to make arrangements for getting his broken forces there. Thomas still stood firm, although the rest of the army was in disorder, and the Confederates, now sure of victory, poured up with a reckless disregard of life. As dusk fell, the ammunition was exhausted, and the last furious charge of the Confederates was repelled with the bayonet. From this time on Thomas was called the "Rock of Chickamauga." In the night he fell back to Rossville, where Sheridan joined him in the morning, and together they marched to Chattanooga to strengthen the defenses of that city. Here they found the rest of the army under Rosecrans. The Union loss in the two days' battle of Chickamauga was sixteen thousand two hundred and thirty-six. The Confederate loss was between nineteen and twenty thousand. With the exception of Gettysburg, it was the most destructive battle of the war. Bragg advanced to positions on Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge, putting the town in a state of siege. He stopped the navigation of the river below, and cut off all of Rosecrans' routes of supply, except one long and rude wagon road. For over a month these opposing armies rested and reorganized. The departments of the Ohio, the Cumberland and Tennessee were united under the title of the Military Division of the Mississippi, of which General Grant was made commander, and Thomas was put in the place of Rosecrans in command of the Army of the Cumberland. On the 23d of October Grant arrived at Chattanooga. He found the men on short rations, discouraged and restless. Great numbers of horses and mules were dead, and Chattanooga was seriously threatened by Bragg's army. The first thing which Grant did was to open a better line of supply. He had a road built to Bridgeport, where steamers could reach it. In five days this line was completed, and the "Cracker Line" as the soldiers called it, was opened, and supplies of all sorts were abundant.

The Confederate line was stretched out twelve miles long. It ran across Chattanooga valley, and rested its flank on the northern end of Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge. The Confederates were also

intrenched upon the crests of these mountains. Longstreet, with twenty thousand men, had been detached from Bragg's army and sent against Burnside, at Knoxville. Sherman had joined Grant and swelled the force to about eighty thousand men. Sherman was placed on the left wing on the north side of the Tennessee, opposite the head of Missionary Ridge; Thomas in the centre across the Chattanooga valley, and Hooker's men swept around the right at the base of Lookout Mountain. It was one of the most beautiful spots which the war desecrated. Sherman, who was famous for laying bridges, constructed two across the Tennessee on the night of November 20th, and the next day he crossed the river and advanced rapidly upon the enemy's works at Missionary Ridge. The ground made fighting very difficult, and Sherman only succeeded partly in his undertaking. Hooker swept around the base of Lookout Mountain, and ordered his men up the steep. They pushed on toward the heights in the face of the Confederate troops, made their way through the clouds that hung below the crest of the mountain, and disappeared above them to the very summit. Such of the enemy at that point as were not taken prisoners escaped down the mountains. This is known as Hooker's battle above the clouds. On the following day (the 25th), Grant ordered Thomas to press forward. He did so, walking right into the line of the Confederate works at the base of Missionary Ridge, and following the retreating Confederates closely up the slope. He swept on till he reached the summit and turned Bragg's own guns upon his defeated men. The Union lost about six thousand men, and the Confederates about ten thousand men in this battle. Bragg took the remainder of his army to Dalton, Georgia, where the command was assumed by General Joseph E. Johnston. After the close of this romantic campaign, a large detachment of men was sent to the relief of Burnside, at Knoxville, and Longstreet, who was opposed to this force, then withdrew to Virginia.

Long before this time the war had been robbed of some of its horrors by the efforts of the Sanitary and Christian Commissions. It was here that the women played their not unimportant part in the war. From the very first they had been anxious to assist the cause. Their personal sacrifices were great. Not only did they cheerfully give up the men dear to them, but thousands of them supported themselves in order that their husbands might leave them. They sacrificed many comforts, and organized many money-making schemes to swell the army fund. With the first call for troops in April, 1861, the women held meetings in many places for the purpose of organizing their efforts and resources.

Out of such meetings finally grew the **Women's Central Association of Relief**, which had its birth in New York, under a constitution written by Dr. Bellows, who was chosen its president. A committee was sent to Washington to offer the services of the organization to the Government, and to learn in what way it could be most useful. The Government did not receive the offer kindly. Even Mr. Lincoln thought that such an organization might embarrass, rather than aid the cause. But permission was at length obtained for the formation of a commission of inquiry and advice in respect to the sanitary interests of the United States forces. This commission met with every sort of discouragement. The officers united in looking upon the matter with distrust. The first work of this organization was to have the volunteer forces reinspected, and many of the men, physically unfit for service, discharged. Its chief purpose was to form depots for receiving supplies of clothing, medicines and delicacies for the camps and hospitals, and forwarding them hastily. Local societies were formed by women all through the North, and managed entirely by them. Of the fifteen million dollars' worth of articles received and distributed, more than four-fifths came from these seven thousand local societies. The commission soon won the admiration of everyone in the military service. It helped select sites for camps, regulated drainage, inspected cooking, constructed model pavilion hospitals to prevent the spread of contagion, and established a system of soldiers' homes, where the sick and convalescent could be cared for on their way to and from their homes. The hospitals, from being dirty and ill-cared for, became models of order and cleanliness. Hospital steamers were fitted up and put on the Mississippi and its tributaries, to ply between the seat of war and the points from which northern hospitals could be reached. A hospital car was invented in which the stretchers that the wounded were brought upon from the field could be hung, and thus become a sort of hammock. The car was built with extra springs, that the jolting might be reduced, and trains of them were run regularly with physicians and stores on board. The commission had several large depots at convenient points, where articles were assorted and labeled, and the army officers were kept informed of the articles which could be supplied. Gardens were planted by the commission and vegetables raised for the use of the soldiers in the field. Supplies of all sorts were kept in constant readiness, in case the Government supplies should be delayed. Sometimes the agents of the commission were actually on the battle field with their supplies, and at the front rescuing the wounded. From

almost every home in the North came something to aid the commission; if not money, then food, clothing, lint, and all sorts of valuables which could be sold, such as diamonds, watches, live stock, carriages, etc. Fairs were held, at which large amounts of money were raised. From the State of California alone came one million three hundred thousand dollars. This was sent largely by men who, being too far from the seat of the war to engage in the conflict, wished to aid the Government so far as lay in their power. This generous contribution from the loyal people of California proved of timely need to the commission in their work of ameliorating the condition of the soldiers in the field.

In course of time the Christian Commission was organized. This met with the approval of the military officers, but did not awaken much enthusiasm among the people at first. In May, 1862, it was able to send out but fourteen delegates, ten of whom were clergymen, but these were received with such favor by the men, that four hundred delegates were sent to the army before the end of the year, and more than a thousand were engaged in the home work. Bibles and hymn books were distributed by the tens of thousands, and newspapers and magazines placed in every camp. Twenty-three libraries were formed, over one hundred and forty thousand dollars expended in money, and an equal value of stores distributed. Chapel tents and chapel roofs were soon furnished to the armies, diet kitchens established in the hospitals, and schools opened for the children of colored soldiers. The writing of letters for the wounded men in the hospitals was not the least of the work. A coffee wagon was invented and given to the commission. Coffee could be made in large quantities in this as it was driven along. The commission supported its own delegates absolutely, and in the course of its existence sent out six thousand delegates. One hundred and twenty of these were women employed mainly in the diet kitchens. Dr. Bellows was president of the Sanitary Commission, Frederick Olmsted secretary, and George T. Strong treasurer. The executive committee of the Christian Commission had George H. Stuart as its chairman, Joseph Patterson as treasurer, and Samuel Moss for secretary. Numerous books have been written on the women who volunteered as nurses in the service of the Government. Miss Clara Barton, now at the head of the Red Cross organization, entered upon hospital work at the very beginning of the war, and at the close of the conflict spent several years searching for the missing men of the Union armies. The first woman who volunteered her services was Miss

Dorothy L. Dicks, to whom all women wishing to act as nurses reported from the beginning of the war. Miss Amy Bradley had charge of a large camp for convalescents near Alexandria, and helped twenty-two hundred men collect back-pay due them, amounting to over two hundred thousand dollars. The wife of General Francis Barlow spent three years in hospitals and died in the service.

FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY**—McKay's "Stories of Hospital and Camp."
Worthington's "Women in Battle."
Brockett's "Woman's Work in Camp, Field and Hospital."
Harding's "Belle Boyd in Camp and Prison."
Champlin's "Christian Work on the Battle Field."
POETRY—F. Moore's "Lyrics of Loyalty."

CHAPTER XCVI.

“Forward by the Left Flank.”

GRANT GIVEN ABSOLUTE COMMAND—THE BATTLE OF THE WILDERNESS—“FORWARD BY THE LEFT FLANK”—SECOND BATTLE OF COLD HARBOR.



IN THE 19th of March, 1864, President Lincoln and General Grant met for the first time, and Grant was given his commission as Lieutenant-General and entrusted with all the armies in the field. Thoughtful people had seen for a long time the sore need of a single military head for the armies. From the first, the Union armies had seldom been as well led as the Confederate, and had been placed at a disadvantage by working disjointedly and in parts. As soon as the need for a supreme head was really felt, all eyes were turned toward Ulysses S. Grant as the man best fitted by his independence and decision to fill the place. Sherman was now put in special charge of operations in the West. Halleck was made chief of staff, and his duties henceforth were few. Meade was continued in command of the Army of the Potomac. General B. F. Butler, with the Army of the James, was held for active service in the field. Grant planned a campaign in which he considered the Army of the Potomac his center; the Army of the James, under General Butler, his left wing; the Western armies, under Sherman, his right wing, and the army under Banks, in Louisiana, a force operating in the rear of the enemy. The plan was for all to move simultaneously, and each commander was given an objective point.

The bulk of Lee's army was upon the western edge of the Wilderness, a wild, desolate region twelve or fifteen miles square, lying south of the Rapidan. Here, it will be remembered, the battle of Chancellorsville

had been fought in May, 1863. The ground had once been mined for iron ore, and the woods cut for the furnaces of the smelters. A thick second growth of underbrush had sprung up which was indescribably dense, and the whole region presented a melancholy and deserted aspect.

The Army of the Potomac lay north of the Rapidan, opposite the Wilderness. It was organized in three infantry corps, the second, fifth and sixth, respectively commanded by Generals Winfield S. Hancock, G. K. Warren and John Sedgwick, and a cavalry corps commanded by General Philip H. Sheridan. General Meade was still in command of the whole. The ninth corps, under Burnside, nearly twenty thousand strong, was at Annapolis, with its destination unknown. Grant told his secrets to no one, for the whole war had been injured by treachery at Washington, from sources which could only be guessed at, but which kept the Confederates acquainted with every movement of the Union armies. The Army of Northern Virginia, as that portion of the Confederate army opposed to Meade was known, consisted of two infantry corps, commanded by Generals Ewell and Ambrose Hill, with a cavalry commanded by General Stuart, the whole under Robert E. Lee. Longstreet was within reach and furnished an offset to Burnside's corps. Before daylight on the morning of May 4th, the Army of the Potomac marched in two columns for the lower fords of the Rapidan. Lee was unable to dispute the passage of the river, and may have been quite willing to permit the Union army to entangle itself in the Wilderness. Lee was acquainted with every road and by-path of that perplexing region, and believed that he could make up for his deficiency in numbers by bewildering his opponents. Grant wished to hurry the Army of the Potomac past the Wilderness in one day, but Lee proposed to strike upon the flanks of Grant's long columns and cut them in two, as they marched by two winding roads. On the morning of the 5th a body of cavalry came into collision with Ewell. Meade had no idea that it was the opening of a serious battle, and thought that a detachment had been left by Lee merely to mislead. But reinforcements kept coming up on both sides, and the fight never ceased until 4 o'clock in the afternoon, when both sides drew back to intrench themselves. On the morning of the 6th, both Lee and Meade were eager to attack, and they moved almost simultaneously. Throughout the day the fortune of the fight fluctuated. Hasty intrenchments were made, lost and retaken on both sides. About 4 o'clock a fire sprung up in the dry forest, and the wind blew the smoke and flames right in the faces of Hancock's men, who were intrenched behind a breastwork of pine logs. The Confed-

erates swarmed over, but in spite of their determination and of the cruel flames, they were driven back to their own lines. Darkness fell and closed the battle, although Ewell made an attack after dark upon a portion of Sedgwick's corps, capturing two brigades which numbered three thousand men, with hardly any loss to himself. The Union loss in killed and wounded was fifteen thousand, besides five thousand prisoners. The Confederate loss was about ten thousand killed and wounded and a few prisoners. But the advantage was practically on the side of Grant. The Confederates had withdrawn to their intrenchments, and from that time to the end of the campaign they seldom showed any desire to leave them. Lee had conducted the battle in that desolate jungle with the greatest skill, but he now had a general opposed to him who could endure misfortune without being panic-stricken; who knew how to turn everything to his own advantage, and whose obstinate determination was invincible. Lee himself exclaimed after the bloody battle of the Wilderness: "Gentlemen, at last the Army of the Potomac has a head." On the 7th, Sheridan cleared the road for the southern movement of the army, and Grant gave orders to move forward by the left flank to Spottsylvania. To withdraw an army in the presence of a powerful enemy and send it forward to a new position is one of the most difficult feats of war. Grant did this several times before the end of the campaign, and always by withdrawing the corps that held his right flank, and passing it behind the others while they maintained their position. Lee became aware of Grant's movement, and also moved toward Spottsylvania Court House, until there was a race for the possession of that place. A part of the Union troops had held back to guard an attack upon the rear of the moving column, so that finally all of Lee's troops stood intrenched at Spottsylvania. Here, on the 8th of May, the two armies faced each other and waited—the Army of Northern Virginia desperate, the Army of the Potomac determined. On this same day Grant sent Sheridan, with his cavalry, to ride around Lee's army, tear up railroads, destroy bridges and depots and capture trains. Sheridan had been considered a dull man at West Point, and in a class of fifty-two had ranked thirty-four. He was very young at the time, and lacked the confidence of the officials at Washington, but Grant believed in him thoroughly, and Grant's instinct in selecting his lieutenants was always to be trusted. On receiving Grant's orders, he dashed off with his well mounted men, and succeeded in destroying ten miles of railroad, several trains of cars, cutting all the telegraph wire and recapturing four hundred prisoners who had been taken in the battle of

the Wilderness, and were on their way to Richmond. The Confederate cavalry, under General Stuart, set out to intercept him, and succeeded in getting between him and Richmond. Sheridan's troops met them seven miles north of the city, at Yellow Tavern, and after a hard fight defeated them. General Stuart was mortally wounded in this engagement, and by his death the Confederacy lost its best cavalry leader. Sheridan dashed through the outer defenses of Richmond and took some prisoners, then finding the remainder of the defenses too strong for him, he crossed the Chickahominy and rejoined the army on the 25th.

As the Union army came into position before the intrenchment of Spottsylvania, Hancock's corps held the western end of the line, Warren's stood next, then Sedgwick's, and then Burnside's. On the 8th of the month General Sedgwick had been killed by an unerring sharpshooter who appeared to be posted in a tree, and in the course of the day killed at least twenty men who attempted to place the batteries. General Horatio G. Wright succeeded Sedgwick in command of the sixth corps. On the evening of the 9th a division of Hancock's had a short engagement and suffered considerable loss without accomplishing anything. The next two days were spent in maneuvering and fighting without decisive results. On the 11th of January, Grant sent a dispatch to the War Department, saying: "We have now ended the sixth day of very hard fighting. The result of this day is much in our favor. Our losses have been heavy, as well as those of the enemy. I propose to fight it out on this line if it takes all summer." The Confederate loss had been, in fact, far less than the Union, for the Confederates were fighting behind intrenchments. These intrenchments were very strong, and search as he might, Grant could find no weak point.

In the grey, foggy morning of May 12th, Hancock's corps dashed upon Lee's center, which was a salient angle thrust forward from the main line. Hancock succeeded in sweeping back the Confederate pickets by mere force of the charge. He passed the abatis and carried the breastworks, making prisoners of three thousand of Ewell's men. Little was gained, however, by the carrying of this salient, which was an outwork of no great importance. Ewell, strongly supported, stood beyond a second fortification, and Hancock was unable to move him. The battle of this day is not easy to describe. The men charged over and over again; the losses were heavy on both sides; little was gained, and no action of great peculiarity marked the day. During the next week Grant received reinforcements and resumed his flanking movements. Lee tried an attack, but was repelled. On the morning of the

22d, that general looked in vain for the army of the Potomac. It had disappeared. Lee could easily guess its destination. He broke up his camps and threw himself across its line of advance toward Richmond. When Grant reached the North Anna, he found Lee awaiting him upon the other side, and disposed to seriously oppose his crossing the river. The corps of Hancock and Warren were sent across the river at points four miles apart, and Lee wedged his force between two columns. Grant saw that one of these might be snattered, and drew them both back, resuming his old flanking movements on the 26th. Lee was quite heavily reinforced while on the North Anna, and at the close of May was back at the Chickahominy, where a battle had been fought two years before. Lee was there before Grant and behind strong fortifications. On the 3d of June, in the drizzling rain of the early morning, the second battle of Cold Harbor began. General Barlow's division stormed and carried the first line of Confederate intrenchments. From a second line a shower of lead was poured upon them, and when they fell back they left half their number behind them. Two more attempts were made, both equally unavailing, except that a considerable number of prisoners were taken. The entire loss of the Union army at Cold Harbor, in the first twelve days of June, was ten thousand and fifty-eight, and among these were many valuable officers. There had been an almost constant skirmishing. From the dusk of the morning till the dusk of the evening the continual crack of the rifle was heard. The Confederate position was very strong. The line was from three to six miles from the outer defences of Richmond, the right resting on the Chickahominy, and the left protected by the woods and swamps about the headwaters of several small streams. The only chance for attack was in front. On the 3d of June, at half past 4 o'clock in the morning, the second, sixth and eighteenth corps moved forward rapidly together, to try what could be done by an attack on the front. Barlow's division of Hancock's corps struck a salient, and fought hand-to-hand till they captured it, taking nearly three hundred prisoners, and three guns, which they promptly turned upon the enemy. But beyond the first line no division, however determined, could go, and trenches were rapidly dug, behind which the men could protect themselves. Thus closed the twelve days' fighting.

It was evident that nothing could be done by an attack on Lee's front, and Grant decided to put his army into a new position. He sent part of his cavalry to the James, above Richmond, for the purpose of destroying portions of Lee's line of supplies from the Shenandoah valley,

and then prepared intrenchments from his position at Cold Harbor to the point where he expected to cross the Chickahominy. Grant was then in readiness to march his army from before the face of the enemy for fifty miles, to cross two rivers and bring it into a new position. The bridges on the Chickahominy had been destroyed, but each column carried a pontoon train. The long lines of infantry, artillery and trains crossed over the river at many different points, and an army of more than one million was placed in a position threatening the Confederate capital, and the Confederates saw that the end was near and certain. Through the rest of the war they fought with a passion which showed their desperation.

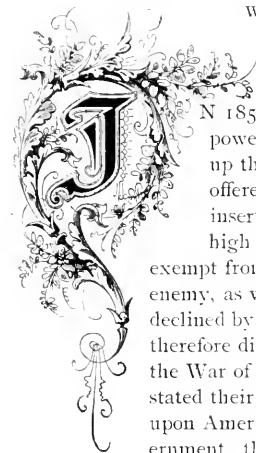
FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY**—Down's "Four Years a Scout and Spy."
Edwards' "Noted Guerrillas."
Eggleston's "A Rebel's Recollections."
Grant's "History of the Rebellion."
Lemour's "Morgan and His Captors."
FICTION—"The American Mail-bag."
E. Eggleston's "Roxy."
POETRY—J. G. Whittier's "In War Time."

CHAPTER XCVII.

The Confederate Cruisers.

THE CONFEDERATE PRIVATEERS—FIGHT BETWEEN THE “KEARSARGE” AND “ALABAMA”—THE INTERNATIONAL COURT OF ARBITRATION—SHERMAN AND THE WESTERN CAMPAIGN.



IN 1856, a treaty was signed at Paris by the great powers of Europe, by which they agreed to give up the right of privateering. The United States offered to sign this on condition that a clause be inserted declaring that private property on the high seas, if not contraband of war, should be exempt from seizure by the *public* armed vessels of an enemy, as well as the private ones. This amendment was declined by the European powers, and the United States therefore did not become a party to the treaty. When the War of Secession began, the Confederate authorities stated their intention of arming private vessels to prey upon American commerce, and the United States Government then offered to accept the treaty without amendment. England and France, however, refused to permit our Government to join in the treaty then, if its provisions against privateering were to be understood as applying to vessels sent out under Confederate authority. The Confederacy was therefore unhindered in its privateering enterprises, and not only kept a score of cruisers roaming about the seas to prey upon United States commerce, but had the satisfaction of knowing that more would be built for her at any time she wished, in the best ship-yards of England. Among her cruisers were the *Shenandoah*, which made thirty-eight captures, the *Florida*, which made twenty-six, the *Tallahassee*, which made twenty-seven, the *Tacony*, which made fifteen, and the *Georgia*, which made ten. Still more famous than these were the *Sumpter* and *Alabama*. The *Alabama*

had been built for the Confederate Government in 1862, at Birkenhead, opposite Liverpool. She was an excellent sailor, carried both canvas and steam, was two hundred and twenty feet long, and, though of wood, a very formidable vessel. The British Government was notified by the American Minister at London that such a ship was being built in an English yard, in violation of the neutrality laws, and demanded that she be prevented from leaving the yard. But the English Government was not over-anxious to prevent her escape, and moved so slowly that the cruiser escaped to sea. Her crew were mostly Englishmen, but she was commanded by Raphael Semmes, who had served in the United States Navy. She roamed about the Atlantic and Indian Oceans and the Gulf of Mexico for nearly two years, and captured sixty-nine American merchantmen, most of which were burned at sea, while their crews were put on shore at some convenient port or sent away on passing vessels. The *Alabama* was always kindly received in foreign ports, for she was helping to ruin American commerce. None of the war vessels which had been sent after her had been able to capture her; because of the rule that when two hostile vessels are in a neutral port, the first that leaves must have been gone twenty-four hours before the other is permitted to follow. But in June, 1864, the United States man-of-war *Kearsarge*, commanded by John A. Winslow, found the *Alabama* in the harbor of Cherbourg, France. Winslow did not go into port at all, and thus escaped the twenty-four-hour rule. The *Alabama* had no desire to escape the *Kearsarge*, and her commander sent out a note asking Winslow not to go away. The request was quite unnecessary. The *Kearsarge* waited patiently, till on Sunday morning, June 19th, the *Alabama*, watched and applauded by thousands of Englishmen and Frenchmen, sailed out to crush the *Kearsarge*. The vessels were a very fair match in point of size and armament. When they were seven or eight miles from the coast, the *Alabama* opened fire, and the two vessels steamed round on opposite sides of a circle half a mile in diameter, firing their starboard guns. The gun practice on the *Alabama* was very bad; that on the *Kearsarge* was excellent. She threw balls in at the port-holes of her enemy, and swept away whole crews of gunners. She felled the mizzen mast with a shot, and pierced the hull below the water line, letting floods of water into the hold. Before an hour had passed the *Alabama* struck her colors, and her officers threw their swords into the sea in token of surrender. While the *Kearsarge* was lowering boats to take off the crew, the *Alabama*, with a shudder and a plunge, went to the bottom of the English Channel. The *Kearsarge* succeeded

in rescuing some of the men, and an English yacht saved Semmes and about forty of his crew, but a considerable number were drowned. Captain Semmes had been defeated once before by the *Kearsarge*, when he commanded the *Sumpter*. That vessel, after a career in which she succeeded in capturing many American vessels, was blockaded by the United States steamers *Kearsarge* and *Tuscarora*, in the harbor of Gibraltar, in February of 1862, and was there abandoned by her captain and crew.

In 1872, the International Court of Arbitration, sitting in Geneva, Switzerland, decided that the British Government, for neglecting to prevent the escape of Confederate cruisers from its ports, must pay the United States Government fifteen million five hundred thousand dollars. This sum fell far short of the damage which had been done, but the United States cared less for the money than for the establishment of the principle.

While the army of the Potomac was putting itself in position for a death-grapple with the army of North Virginia, important movements were going on at the West. The purpose of these was to secure the Mississippi river absolutely, and to set free the large garrisons required to hold the important places on its banks. General Sherman set out from Vicksburg on the 3d of February, 1864, with a force of over twenty thousand men. His destination was Meridian, over one hundred miles east of Vicksburg, where two important railroads cross each other. The Union troops entered the town on the 14th, and destroyed the Confederate arsenal and store-houses, as well as the machine shops, the stations and railways. The rails were heated and then bent and twisted, and were popularly known as "Jeff Davis' neckties," and "Sherman's hair-pins." The roads were thoroughly destroyed, every mill and factory ruined, and only the dwelling-houses left untouched. A detachment of cavalry, which Sheridan had sent out to destroy Forrest's Confederate cavalry, having failed in its purpose, Sherman thought best to return to Vicksburg. He was followed to that city by thousands of negroes, who could be turned back neither by persuasion nor threats, and who saw in Sherman a deliverer whom it was their duty and pleasure to follow. On the west side of the Mississippi, General Banks attempted to perform a service somewhat similar to that of Sherman's, for the purpose of widening the gap in the Confederacy. He set out with about fifteen thousand men, in March, for Shreveport, at the head of steam navigation on the Red river. Here he was to be joined by ten thousand men, under General A. J. Smith, who had been detached

from Sherman's army for the occasion, and Commodore David Porter, with a fleet of gunboats and transports. Smith and Porter arrived promptly at the rendezvous, captured Fort De Russey, below Alexandria, and after Banks' arrival, the army moved along the river roads within sight of the gunboats. This march was continued for many days, the monotony being broken by an occasional skirmish with small bodies of Confederate troops, and slight demonstrations from the gun-



PICKING COTTON.

boats. The army was strung out for twenty miles on a single road, and walked along easily, not displeased with the comparative quiet. They were punished for this carelessness by coming suddenly upon a strong Confederate force, commanded by General Richard Taylor, near the Sabine Cross-roads. Neither commander intended that there should be a battle, but the men of both sides became much excited, and it was necessary on both sides to keep bringing forward men, until at last Banks' line suddenly gave way. The cavalry and teamsters rushed in confusion

and fear before the victorious Confederates. Three miles in the rear, the nineteenth corps stood the tide of the rout, and successfully repelled the Confederates. Banks fell back to Pleasant Hill, where, on the following day, he had nearly his whole force in line. The Confederates made an assault late in the afternoon, and were repelled. Banks followed this up by an attack on his own part, and recaptured several of the guns he had lost the day before. Banks had been ordered to return Smith's borrowed troops, and, therefore, could not follow up his victory, but fell back to the river Ecore. Here it was found that the river had so fallen as to make it impossible for the fleet to pass down the rapids, and it was feared that the boats would be taken and destroyed. They were saved by the ingenuity of Lieutenant-Colonel Joseph Bailey, who, though scoffed at by the army engineers, built a dam across the river in eight days, in which he left a narrow passage, through which the water rushed like a mill-race. Within a few days the entire fleet passed through this swirling stream of water and steamed down the Mississippi.

Fifteen thousand troops, under General Steele, had marched from Little Rock toward Shreveport, to reinforce Banks, but were defeated by the same force of Confederates who had engaged in the battles of Sabine Cross-roads and Pleasant Hill.

FOR FURTHER READING

HISTORY—Cannon's "Casual Papers upon the Alabama."

Semme's "Cruise of the Alabama."

Ammen's "The Atlantic Coast."

Mahan's "The Gulf and Inland Waters."

Soley's "The Blockade and the Cruisers."

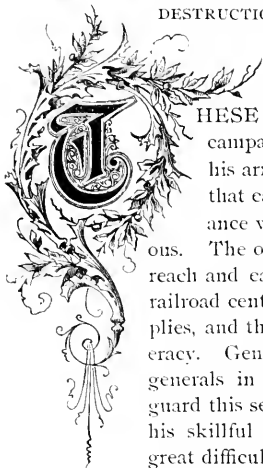
FICTION—W. H. Thome's "Running the Blockade."

POETRY—T. B. Read's "Kearsarge and the Alabama."

CHAPTER XCVIII.

“After You, Pilot!”

SHERMAN'S MARCH TO ATLANTA—THE BOMBARDMENT OF MOBILE—
DESTRUCTION OF THE “ALBEMARLE.”



THESE two expeditions only heralded the great campaign which Sherman was to undertake with his army, and which was to be simultaneous with that carried on by Grant in Virginia. Its importance was almost as great, its difficulties as numerous. The object was to move forward to Chattanooga, reach and capture Atlanta, which was important as a railroad center and for its manufacture of military supplies, and thus sweep a great swath through the Confederacy. General Joseph E. Johnston, one of the best generals in the Confederate service, had been left to guard this section of country, and Sherman realized that his skillful opposition could only be overcome with great difficulty. Chattanooga is a hundred miles from Atlanta, through a country of many hills and streams, well adapted for an army acting on the defensive. Johnston was the man to make the most of this. He had an army numbering fifty-five thousand, while Sherman had one hundred thousand. But the practical difference was not great, for Sherman was not only to act on the offensive, but to leave heavy detachments behind him from day to day to guard his communications, for all of his supplies were drawn from Nashville, over one single-track railroad, which was liable to be broken at any time. Thus Sherman was obliged to stretch out his army like a great elastic string, while Johnston could keep his well massed, and would also have the advantage of fighting on the defensive. Sherman's men were well supplied, but were permitted to take nothing which should hamper them in their daring march. General Thomas was the only man in the army who was allowed a tent. Sherman himself had



GENERAL W. T. SHERMAN.

neither tent nor wagon train. Every man, from Sherman down, carried five days' provisions on his back.

On May 5th, the army left Chattanooga and followed the line of the railroad south toward Atlanta. Sherman sent McPherson southward to march through a gap in the mountains, strike Resaca and cut the railroad over which Johnston drew all his supplies. McPherson reached Resaca, but found such a force there that instead of attacking boldly, he fell back to the gap and waited for the rest of the army to join him. By this time Johnston had learned what was going on, and had concentrated his forces in a strong position at Resaca, where Sherman faced him on May 14th. The day was given up to skirmishing, for neither general was willing to fight at a disadvantage. Sherman threw two pontoon bridges across the river that he might send a detachment to break the railroad, and McPherson gained a position where his guns could destroy the railroad bridge in the Confederate rear. Johnston thought it best to hasten away from a place in which he was becoming so cramped, and on the 15th crossed the river and moved southward, burning the bridges behind him. By pontoons and fords, Sherman's forces hurried after. When Sherman was a young lieutenant he had ridden through the country from Charleston, South Carolina, to Northwestern Georgia, and he still remembered how the land lay and the rivers ran. He knew that Allatoona Pass, through which the railroad south of Kingston runs, was very strong, and could be easily held by Johnston. He therefore directed his columns in such a way as to threaten Marietta and Atlanta, so as to cause Johnston to withdraw from Allatoona and leave the railroad, which, as Sherman's army advanced into the country, became more and more necessary to it. Johnston moved westward to meet this movement, and the forces met at the cross-roads by New Hope Church. For six days there was constant skirmishing around this place, and in the end, though little had been gained, the advantage was with Sherman. He succeeded in securing all the wagon roads from Allatoona, and in sending out a strong force to occupy the pass and repair the railroad. Johnston took up a new position on the slopes of the Kennesaw, Pine and Lost mountains. From here, he could see everything that was done by Sherman's army. That army did not try to get out of sight, but moved closer and closer, by intrenchments. For several days heavy rains kept Sherman from acting, but as soon as fair weather came, steady skirmishing was kept up between the two lines, and the loss of men on both sides was heavy.

On June 14th, the Confederate army suffered the loss of General Leonidas Polk, who stood by a battery on the crest of Pine Mountain, with a group of officers examining the field with their glasses. General Polk had been for twenty years the Protestant Episcopal Bishop of Louisiana, and in his death the Confederacy lost one of its most influential men. On June 15th, Sherman found that Johnston had withdrawn from Pine Mountain, and promptly occupied the ground himself, taking a large number of prisoners. On the following day the enemy had abandoned Lost Mountain and retreated to works prepared for them by gangs of slaves, on the Kennesaw, where they were able to cover Marietta and the roads to Atlanta. On the 27th, Sherman decided to attack the enemy in his intrenchments, and launched heavy columns against them, while a steady fire was kept up all along the line. This experiment cost Sherman over twenty-five hundred men, and gained nothing, for though his men charged valiantly, only a few reached the enemy's works, and these were killed or captured. Sherman therefore decided on an action which required the utmost boldness, and which was against the rules of warfare, to-wit: He left his communications, took ten days' provisions in wagons, and moved his whole army southward to seize the road below Marietta. He did this by moving by the right flank, in the same cautious manner that Grant had done in his difficult march from the Wilderness to the James river. Johnston fell back to the Chattahoochee, but instead of crossing the stream, put himself behind a magnificent piece of field fortification which a thousand slaves had been working on for a month. But Sherman held the river above and below and was able to cross when he chose, and Johnston, realizing Sherman's advantages, crossed in the night with his entire army, and burned the railroad and other bridges behind him. On the 17th of July, Sherman cautiously followed, moving his army by a grand right wheel, toward the city of Atlanta. At this point, Johnston, who had so cautiously and skillfully evaded his opponent, was removed, and the command given to General John B. Hood, a man capable of reckless fighting, but lacking Johnston's skill and wisdom. Sherman knew that sudden sallies were to be expected now, and on July 20th, as the Union troops were entering Atlanta, Hood's men left the intrenchments prepared for them along the line of Peach Tree creek, and attacked. At the end of two hours the enemy was driven back to his intrenchments, leaving hundreds of dead on the field. A day or two later the Confederates fell back to the immediate defenses of the city.

On the 22d, Hood moved out with a part of his army, and attacked

a detachment of Sherman's men, who had been left without proper protection upon a hill. The forest hid him till his men burst upon the camp, and the troops were taken entirely by surprise. But under the direction of General Logan and others, the surprised forces rallied and repulsed seven fierce charges. A counter-charge finally drove back the Confederates. The Union loss in the battle of Atlanta was three thousand five hundred and twenty-one men killed, wounded and missing, and ten guns. The Confederate loss was larger. General McPherson was killed in the woods, where he had ridden alone at the first sound of battle. He was a young man, and a brilliant one, popular with the soldiers, and of no little assistance to Sherman. General Howard was promoted to McPherson's place, in command of the Army of the Tennessee, and General Hooker resigned, because he thought that the position should have been given him. General Henry W. Slocum was given Hooker's command of the twentieth corps. On the 28th, when Sherman moved again by the right, Hood made a heavy attack, which Logan repelled with a loss to himself of five hundred and seventy-two men. Sherman constantly sent out cavalry expeditions to break the railroads south of Atlanta, but as fast as he broke, the Confederates repaired them. Kilpatrick's cavalry rode entirely around Atlanta, defeated a combined cavalry and infantry force, and thought he had done damage enough to the railroad to keep supplies from entering the city for ten days, but before twenty-four hours the enterprising Confederates had trains running into the city again. Finding that these raids accomplished but little, Sherman again moved by the right, and swung his army into position south of Atlanta, and then advanced toward the city. The greater part of Hood's force escaped eastward on the night of September 1st, and, a few days later, Sherman made his headquarters in the city and took permanent possession.

Grant and Sherman had planned to have the city of Mobile taken by forces moving east from New Orleans and Port Hudson. The principal defences of Mobile Bay were Fort Morgan, on Mobile Point, and Fort Gaines, three miles northwest of it. The passage between these two forts was obstructed by many piles and a line of torpedoes. The eastern end of this line was marked by a red buoy, and from that point to Fort Morgan the channel was open to allow blockade runners to pass. The plan was to have Farragut's fleet pass these forts, subdue the Confederate fleet inside, and take possession of the bay. A land force to co-operate with him was furnished, under General Gordon Granger. Farragut's fleet consisted of four iron-clad monitors and

seven wooden sloops of war. Each sloop had a gunboat lashed to her side, to help her out in case she was disabled. On the 4th of August all the ships were under way, the *Brooklyn* going first and carrying an apparatus for picking up torpedoes. The forts and the Confederate fleet opened fire upon them half an hour before they could bring their guns to answer. Farragut's flag-ship, the *Hartford*, suffered especially. She received a one-hundred-and-twenty-pound ball in her mainmast, and



LIEUTENANT CUSHING'S ATTACK ON THE "ALBEMARLE."

had great splinters sent flying across her deck, which killed and wounded many of her crew. But the *Hartford* and the other vessels weathered the storm, and as they came abreast of the fort, poured in terrific broadsides of shot and shells, and soon quieted the Confederate batteries. It was known that the red buoy marked the line of torpedoes, and the captains had been particularly warned not to pass east of it. But Captain Craven, of the monitor *Tenness*, disregarded this order in his

impatience to attack the Confederate ram *Tennessee*, and his vessel struck a torpedo which exploded. As the vessel was rapidly sinking, Captain Craven and his pilot met at the foot of a ladder which afforded the only escape. The pilot moved aside for his superior officer to pass. Craven knew that it was his fault that the accident had occurred, and said, "After you, pilot;" "but," said the pilot, "there was nothing after me, for the moment that I reached the deck, the vessel seemed to drop from under me and went to the bottom."

Farragut was lashed in the rigging of the *Hartford*, and ordering steam on his vessel, led the whole line past the dangerous torpedoes. He succeeded in sending the *Tennessee*, the Confederate iron-clad, off for a time, and sent his gunboats in pursuit of the enemy's gunboats. These succeeded in destroying or capturing all of the Confederate vessels except one. The iron ram *Tennessee* then steamed boldly into the midst of Farragut's vessels, trying to ruin them with her powerful ram and firing in every direction. She was so heavy and cumbersome that the Union vessels were able to avoid her by skillful management, and the monitors poured solid shot against her armor. When at length they shot away her smoke-stack, life on her became unendurable, and she surrendered. It was a glorious victory, but Farragut, coming down from the shrouds, thought less of the triumph than of the twenty-four dead sailors—long his companions—who were laid out on the deck of the *Hartford*, and over whom the brave old sailor wept some bitter tears.

In October the Confederate iron-clad *Albatross* was destroyed on the Roanoke river. Lieutenant William B. Cushing, of the navy, ventured with a volunteer crew, in a small steam launch, to put a torpedo under her overhang. This exploded and sent her to the bottom, destroying the launch also. The crew of the launch, with the exception of Cushing and one sailor, were lost.

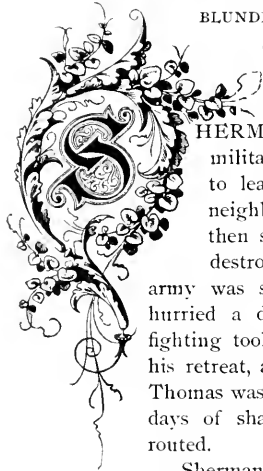
FOR FURTHER READING.

- HISTORY—Andrew's "Campaign of Mobile."
 Logan's "The Great Conspiracy."
 POETRY—L. C. Redden's "Idylls of Battle."
 H. H. Brownell's "Farragut's Bay Fight."
 FICTION—G. W. Nichol's "The Sanctuary."

CHAPTER XCIX.

From Atlanta to the Sea.

THE MARCH FROM ATLANTA TO THE SEA—THE ENTRANCE TO
SAVANNAH—THE SIEGE OF RICHMOND—BURNSIDE'S
BLUNDER—THE BURNING OF
CHAMBERSBURG.



SHERMAN converted Atlanta into a purely military post, and ordered all the inhabitants to leave the town. Hood lingered about the neighborhood till the first of September, and then set out to Tennessee with the purpose of destroying the railroads, by which the national army was supplied. Sherman guessed his designs, hurried a detachment to check him, and some fierce fighting took place about Allatoona. Hood continued his retreat, and early in December reached Nashville. Thomas was awaiting him at this place, and, after two days of sharp conflict, the Confederates were utterly routed.

Sherman now set out on his march from Atlanta to the sea, a distance of two hundred and twenty-five miles, in a straight line. His object was to destroy the railroads in Georgia, which would deal a more fatal blow to the Confederacy than even the seizure of the Mississippi had done. He made the most thorough preparations. His army was weeded out; all the sick and disabled sent north; every luxury dispensed with, and every necessity provided for. The presidential election was at hand, and before the army departed, commissioners came and took the votes of the soldiers. Every detachment of the army was given the most minute instructions, and on the twelfth of November, as the army whirled out of Atlanta, the road was destroyed behind them, the depot, machine-shops and locomotive house torn down, and fire set to the ruins. Every man in the army was a

veteran. There was the most perfect confidence in Sherman. Each man was, to an extent, in his confidence; knew what he was to do, why he was to do it, and was determined to perform his part. The army was to live, for the most part, upon the country. The soldiers were forbidden to enter dwelling-houses, but foraging parties were to daily gather sufficient vegetables and drive in any stock which was in sight of the encampment. At least ten days' provisions were to be kept in the wagons. Whenever the army was unmolested no houses or mills were to be destroyed, but if guerillas were to appear, or if the line was especially annoyed, the army commanders were permitted to order a retaliation.

Frantic appeals were put forth to the people of Georgia, by the Governor of the State, to stay the march of this army. The Secretary of War sent word that the enemy could now be destroyed, if the people would only arise and protect their native soil. But there were no people, or at least no men, to arise. Almost every able-bodied man in the State was in the war. Thus Sherman's great army swept on through the heart of the Confederacy, meeting with no opposition worth speaking of until the heads of the columns were within sixteen miles of Savannah. Here the roads leading to the city were found to be obstructed by felled timber, with earthworks and artillery; but Sherman's forces, who had torn up more railroads, cleared more roads, and built more bridges than any other portion of the national army, were not easily stayed by a few felled trees and some earthworks. When torpedoes and shells were found buried in the ground, the Confederate prisoners were made to remove them. Fort McAllister, fifteen miles below Savannah, was the only real obstacle in the way. This hindered communication with the fleet, and it was therefore necessary to carry it. This Sherman did on the thirteenth. He then demanded the surrender of the city. This was refused by General Hardee, who was in command at that point. Sherman prepared for a regular siege, but on the twenty-first of December, 1864, Hardee left the city, marching his force toward Charleston, and Sherman entered it the following day. Sherman wrote to the President: "I beg to present you, as a Christmas gift, the city of Savannah, with one hundred and fifty heavy guns, plenty of ammunition, and about twenty-five thousand bales of cotton." The President received this message on Christmas eve, and it was the first word which he had heard from that vast army for over a month. Sherman's entire loss in the march had been seven hundred and sixty-four men. He had struck directly at the source of the Confederate

supplies, and had accomplished a great purpose with but little destruction of life.

Meanwhile, Mr. Lincoln was rechosen President, in spite of the personal abuse that was heaped upon him, and the declaration of a large portion of the North that the war was a failure. That it was not so, was owing largely to the combined action of Sherman and Grant. In Virginia, events had so shaped themselves that the campaign took the form of a siege of Richmond. Lee was confident in his belief that his seventy thousand men could hold this well-fortified city against any force that could be brought against it, so long as his army was fed. To reach Richmond, it was necessary for Grant to carry Petersburg, which was the focus to which several roads converged. Five railroads entered this point, besides several plank roads and turnpikes. These railroads formed the main means of supply for the Confederate force, after those of the valley of the Shenandoah had been thoroughly interrupted—and Grant saw to it that they were interrupted. Petersburg was not strongly fortified, and on the 14th of June a feeble movement was made by General Smith against the place, which was not successful. On the 16th Grant himself superintended a forcible attack. The Confederates made a stout defense, but late in the day rushed back in full flight. They were stayed, however, by a single fresh brigade, and night put an end to the fighting. In the darkness, Beauregard drew off his disordered troops to an unfortified position, and worked them all night throwing up intrenchments. Lee, now realizing the importance of Petersburg, hurried large reinforcements down from Richmond. On the 17th the contest for the Confederate lines was renewed, and Hancock and Burnside carried it at a cost of four thousand men. On the following day the Confederates moved back to their inner lines, which were too strong to be attacked, and Grant contented himself with enveloping Petersburg with his army. The siege was regularly opened on the 19th of June. Grant's first attempt against the railroad was on the 21st of June, against the Weldon road, which was the most important one. The two detachments which were sent out for this purpose were nearly at right angles with each other, but were not in connection, and did not sufficiently guard their flanks. A heavy Confederate force, under General A. P. Hill, coming out to meet the movement, drove straight into the gap between the forces, and succeeded in capturing seventeen hundred men and four guns. The fighting was not severe, but the movement against the railroads was checked. Hill withdrew to his intrenchments. The Union lines were re-established on this flank,

and nothing of importance occurred here till the middle of August. But near the center of the line in front of Burnside's corps there was great interest felt in a tunnel which was being dug by a regiment of Pennsylvania miners. These were directed under the nearest point of the Confederate works, and the digging was begun in a ravine, to be out of sight of the enemy, the earth being carried in cracker-boxes and hidden under the brushwood. This mine, planned by Burnside, was five hundred and twenty feet long, with lateral branches at the head forty feet in each direction, and charged with eight thousand pounds of gunpowder. It was exploded on the afternoon of July 30th. A great mass of earth, two hundred feet long, sixty feet wide and thirty feet deep, shot up into the air and fell, leaving a crater into which fully fifty thousand Union troops poured. These were unable to climb its sides, and the Confederates, after the first shock of horror had passed, poured a plunging fire over the brink. Not till eight terrible hours had passed were the troops ordered to leave the crater, which they did by one narrow passage. The Union lost four thousand men in this engagement. The Confederates not more than one thousand. Burnside, distressed past expression at the failure of the movement, begged to be relieved from his command, and his corps was given to Parke.

Lee had become so confident of his position at Richmond that he sent a considerable force to the aid of Early, who, for some time had been operating in the valley of the Shenandoah. The defenses of Washington had been nearly stripped of troops to reinforce the Army of the Potomac, and Early hoped to take the National Capital by a sudden dash. On the 10th of July he came within six miles of Washington without meeting much show of resistance. There was great alarm in the capital. The citizens, Government clerks and Government officials armed themselves to defend the city. Fortunately, Early halted for two days, and in the meantime Grant sent the sixth corps from before Petersburg, and the nineteenth, by water, from Hampton Roads. These reached Washington just in time to save it, and on the 12th Early retreated across the Potomac with a great quantity of booty. Little attempt was made to follow him, and within two weeks he made a raid into Pennsylvania. His cavalry, three hundred strong, entered Chambersburg on the 30th, and stated that unless two hundred thousand dollars in gold was immediately paid, the town should surely be burned. As this amount of money could not be produced by the citizens, the village was given to the flames. All these disasters Grant clearly saw were owing to the want of an efficient commander for that

department, and he hastened to Harper's Ferry, accepted Hunter's resignation, and appointed Sheridan to the command of all the troops in West Virginia and about Washington.

FOR FURTHER READING.

HISTORY—Boynton's "Sherman's Historical Raid."
Cox's "Marching to the Sea."
Cannon's "Grant's Richmond Campaign."
Taylor's "Four Years with General Lee."
POETRY—C. G. Halpin's "Song of Sherman's Army."
J. G. Whittier's "Howard at Atlanta."

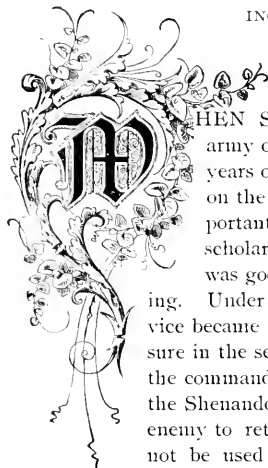


SHERIDAN'S FAMOUS RIDE FROM WINCHESTLE TO CEDAR CREEK.

CHAPTER C.

Whirling Through Winchester.

SHERIDAN AND THE SHENANDOAH CAMPAIGN—SHERMAN'S MARCH
NORTHWARD FROM SAVANNAH—THE BURN-
ING OF COLUMBIA.



WHEN Sheridan was placed in command of the army of the Shenandoah he was but thirty-three years old, and Secretary Stanton objected to him on the grounds that he was too young for so important a command. He had not been a brilliant scholar at West Point, but in the army his record was good. He had, in short, a genius for fighting. Under his direction the cavalry of the Union service became unconquerable. Grant, whose instinct was sure in the selection of his assistants, persisted in giving the command to him. His instructions were to push up the Shenandoah valley, and leave nothing to invite the enemy to return. Such stock and provisions as could not be used were to be destroyed. The Shenandoah valley ran like a fertile road between the mountain walls, and down this the Confederate force could be launched at almost any time upon Washington. So fruitful was this valley that it furnished the chief source of supplies for the Confederate army, and was a stronghold almost impossible to carry from the sides. To enter it from the end and follow a Confederate army through it was a hazardous matter, but Sheridan undertook it with enthusiasm. Early's main force was on the south bank of the Potomac, above Harper's Ferry, and upon Sheridan's approach he hastened to recall his cavalry, who were gathering wheat upon the battle field of Antietam. Sheridan hastened to move his army toward Winchester to threaten Early's communications and draw him into battle. Early altered his position to cover Winchester, and waited for reinforcements from Lee's army. Grant warned

Sheridan that the force would be too strong for him to attack, and he therefore waited till the Confederates should take the offensive, which they did on August 21, 1864.

The engagement was not of much importance. For three or four weeks following, Early kept his whole force at the lower end of the valley, and amused himself by making raids into Pennsylvania, West Virginia and Maryland. The cavalry indulged in many small engagements, with varying results. Grant and Sheridan agreed thoroughly as to the method of conducting the campaign, and they paid no attention to the criticisms which they received from every quarter. They felt sure that the time would come when Lee would recall part of the forces he had sent into the valley, and that Sheridan could then deal a severe blow to Early.

All happened as they expected. On September 19th, Lee recalled the command which had reinforced Early in August, and at the same time a large part of Early's remaining troops were sent to Martinsburg, twenty miles away. Sheridan, who had been watching Early as a cat does a mouse, knew that the moment had come to spring. Early was east of Winchester; Sheridan along the line of Opequan creek, about five miles east of the city. Early in the morning Sheridan set his troops in motion. The men crossed the stream, passed through a ravine, and by mid-day were in line of battle. In the meantime Early had sent to recall his men from Martinsburg, and his whole force was uniting in front of Winchester.

The battle began along the whole line at once, and never ceased till nightfall. As the afternoon drew near its close Sheridan had the advantage, and he kept his men to their work with a tenacity which discouraged and bewildered the Confederates till they fled through the streets of Winchester in hopeless dismay and escaped up the valley. The Union loss was five thousand; the Confederate loss one thousand less, with two generals and nine battle flags.

Sheridan wrote to Grant that he had "sent Early whirling through Winchester." Early retreated southward and took up a position on Fisher's Hill, where the valley narrows till it is only four miles in width. Here his men began the construction of intrenchments. Sheridan followed promptly and some of his troops gained an eminence overlooking the Confederate intrenchments, and hastened to cut trees and prepared batteries at this point. Sheridan carefully reconnoitred the position himself, and planned to send the greater part of his cavalry through the Luray valley to the rear of the Confederates, thus cutting

off their retreat, and at the same time to attack in front with a portion of the men, while General Crook, with the eighth corps, should make a detour and come in on the enemy's flank. Just at dusk Crook and his men crept silently out of the woods and burst upon Early's left. The Confederates were astounded. Their own intrenchments were used by the enemy against them, and at the front Sheridan pressed promptly on and the enemy fled in dismay. Sheridan's cavalry, however, failed to get through to the rear, and retreat was therefore left open. In the battle of Fisher's Hill the Union loss was about four hundred, and the Confederate about fourteen hundred. Early retreated on through the valley, and Sheridan relentlessly followed until he could safely go no farther.

On October 5th, Sheridan turned about and swept his army like a cloud of locusts through the fertile region, destroying everything except the dwellings. In his report, Sheridan said: "I have destroyed over two thousand barns filled with wheat, hay and farming implements; over seventy mills filled with flour and wheat; have driven in front of the army over four thousand head of stock, and have killed and issued to the troops not less than three thousand sheep."

Early was now reinforced, and he, in turn, pursued Sheridan. On October 7th, the cavalry of both sides indulged in a spirited engagement, in which the Union forces were victors, and captured over three hundred prisoners, eleven guns, and all the wagons of the opposing force. Sheridan halted north of Strasburg, at Cedar creek, and put his army in camp there under General Wright, while he obeyed a summons calling him to Washington to confer about the continuation of the campaign. As the valley had been laid desolate, Early could find nothing for his men and horses to live upon, and he was forced either to leave the valley or attack immediately. He decided to attack, and on the night of the 18th, his soldiers crept silently upon the flank held by Crook's corps, burst upon it with such unexpected fierceness that the men had not time to leave their tents, and many of them were stabbed while they were still sleeping. The nineteenth corps was also routed in confusion, but the sixth stood firm and covered the retreat of the rest. Sheridan was returning from Washington, and when he reached Winchester, heard of the battle. He dashed on for twenty miles and met a stream of fugitives pouring in a headlong rout toward Winchester, but when he shouted, "Face the other way, boys; we are going back to our camps!" the men turned and followed the little general on his foam-covered horse back to the defense. In the afternoon Sheridan himself

attacked, sending his gallant cavalry around both flanks, and breaking the whole Confederate line. All the guns lost in the morning were retaken and twenty-four besides. In the battle of Cedar creek, the Union loss was five thousand seven hundred and sixty-four, of whom seventeen hundred were prisoners taken in the morning and hurried away toward Richmond. The Confederate loss was about thirty-one hundred. This practically ended the campaign in the valley.

The army of the Potomac, before Petersburg, went into winter quarters behind its intrenchments, contenting itself with a constant picket and artillery fire. During the winter the Confederate army suffered greatly. They were sometimes without meat, often without other necessities, and always without luxuries. On the 15th of January, 1865, Fort Fisher, which commands the port at Wilmington, was captured by a combined naval and military expedition under General Alfred H. Terry. This had been an important avenue of supply to the Confederates, and its loss was severely felt. On the 9th of February, 1865, Lee was made Commander-in-chief of all the military forces of the Confederacy. He first appointed General J. E. Johnston as commander of all the troops in Georgia, South Carolina and Florida, and gave him orders to drive back Sherman. Sherman's great army had left Savannah on the 1st of February, sixty thousand strong. The march which Sherman now undertook was much more difficult and dangerous than that from Atlanta to the sea had been. In the former march the army had moved parallel to the courses of the rivers, but in the march through the Carolinas all the streams had to be crossed. Furthermore, Sherman now had for his opponent General Johnston, whose ability even Sherman might well stand in fear of. General Hood, who had been displaced for the reinstatement of Johnston, had met with a severe blow from Thomas, at Nashville, on the 15th of the previous December, and popular opinion had demanded his removal. There was danger, too, that Lee might slip away from his intrenchments, escape the watchful Grant, and launch his whole force against Sherman. The fleet, therefore, co-operated with Sherman; watched his progress from the coast, and finding points where supplies could be reached, and refuge taken, should it be necessary. Sherman met with some opposition, but reached Columbia in a short time. As this was the capital of South Carolina, it was expected that the army would meet with serious opposition, but it was found that the city was only protected by Wade Hampton's cavalry. True, the bridges had been burned, but these were soon rebuilt, and on the 17th of February, Sherman's men marched

into Columbia as Hampton's left it. When they entered, they found the air full of burning flakes of cotton, for innumerable bales had been piled in the streets and set on fire. The city was in flames in many places, and General Sherman ordered his men to aid in extinguishing the fire. Sherman has often been accused of burning the place, but he positively denies all responsibility for it, though he confesses that some of the Union prisoners, who were released upon his arrival in the city, may have assisted in spreading the fire after it had begun. The general gave the citizens five hundred head of cattle, and did what he could to shelter them. However, he destroyed the arsenal and the foundries in which the Confederate paper money was printed. Sherman advanced into North Carolina, hindered slightly by several conflicts which Johnston forced upon him. The march was continued toward Raleigh. Thirty-five miles south of that city, on the 16th of March, the left wing of the army suddenly came upon Hardee's forces, intrenched upon its path. After some hard fighting the Confederates retreated, each side having lost five hundred men. On the 19th of March another sharp engagement took place at Bentonville, in which the Union loss was one thousand six hundred and four men, and the Confederates two thousand three hundred and forty-two. This closed Sherman's operations, and he rested where he was until terms of peace were made.

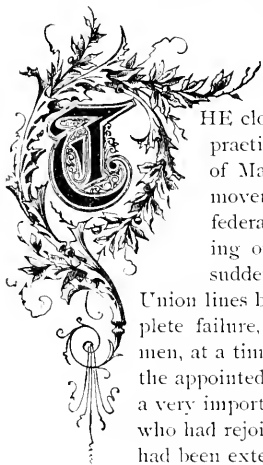
FOR FURTHER READING

- HISTORY**—Whitney's "Who Burnt Columbia?"
 Trezevant's "Burning of Columbia."
 Newhall's "With Sheridan in Lee's Last Campaign."
 Pond's "Shenandoah Valley in 1864."
 Humphrey's "Virginia Campaign of '64 and '65."
FICTION—J. E. Cooke's "Hilt to Hilt."
POETRY—T. B. Read's "Sheridan's Ride."

CHAPTER CL.

“Oh, Captain! My Captain!”

CLOSING OF THE VIRGINIA CAMPAIGN—THE EVACUATION OF RICHMOND—SURRENDER OF LEE AT APPOMATTOX COURT HOUSE—ASSASSINATION OF PRESIDENT LINCOLN.



THE closing campaign in Virginia, and that which practically ended the war, was begun on the 24th of March, 1865, when Grant ordered that a grand movement be made on the 29th against the Confederate right. Lee hoped to prevent the carrying out of this plan, and on the 25th made a sudden attack at Steedman, near the center of the Union lines before Petersburg. The attempt was a complete failure, and the Confederates lost three thousand men, at a time when they could poorly afford them. On the appointed day and hour Grant's movement was begun, a very important part of it being assigned to Sheridan, who had rejoined the Army of the Potomac. Lee's army had been extended to Five Forks, and on the 1st of April Sheridan attacked this point with such vigor that Lee greatly weakened himself to defend the place. Grant promptly assailed the works at Petersburg, and carried the exterior lines. The end was near. Lee and all of his generals realized this fact. Lee telegraphed to Davis at Richmond, that Petersburg must be immediately abandoned. The news reached Jefferson Davis as he sat in church. He rose quietly, and leaving, made hasty preparations for going south. The night that followed was a terrible one in Richmond. The mob broke loose, plundered warehouses and dwellings, and committed all sorts of outrages. General Ewell, who commanded there, set fire to the bridges and storehouses. There was a high wind, and in a short time a third of Richmond was in flames. Early Monday morning a small body of

Union troops took possession of Richmond, the Confederate capital. They were met by the civil authorities, who announced that the city had been evacuated by the army, and surrendered fully. At 4:30 in the afternoon, the Union flag floated in the murky air above the court house at Petersburg. The Confederates had blown up all their works and were in full retreat. Lee thought that there was still hope for the Confederacy. He desired to gather his widely scattered forces together and to make one more effort. In all he still had forty thousand men. If he could reach Johnston, he thought it might be possible to escape pursuit, and undertake a different sort of warfare. But he had marched out with rations for only one day, expecting to be met with large supplies at Amelia Court House. The directions concerning the supplies were not explicit, and they went straight on, so that Lee found no supplies waiting for him when he reached that place, and had to break up his forces into foraging squads. The Union columns were in close pursuit, and on the 6th of April, Sheridan struck Ewell's corps of the retreating army at Sailor's creek, and took seven thousand prisoners. Weary, disheartened and hungry, the rest of the Confederate army pressed on, fighting passionately whenever they had an opportunity. On the 7th, Grant wrote to Lee proposing to receive the surrender of his army. Lee replied that he did not think the case hopeless, but wished to know what terms could be offered. Grant's nickname in the army was "Unconditional Surrender," and Lee expected that the terms would be severe. But Grant only required that the men surrendering should not take arms against the Government of the United States until properly exchanged. On the 9th, the two commanders met at Appomattox Court House, and terms of surrender were formally agreed upon. The substance was, that all officers and men should be paroled, all public property be turned over, and each officer and man be allowed to return to his home, not to be disturbed by the United States authorities so long as the paroles were observed and the laws obeyed. The number paroled was twenty-eight thousand eight hundred and five. Of these, not more than eight thousand had muskets in their hands, for the others had flung away their arms in their weary flight. The men were permitted to take their horses with them—Grant said they might need them for plowing. No cheering, firing of salutes, or any other sign of exultation was permitted, and the famished Confederates were fed by their victors.

On the 26th of April, Sheridan, in North Carolina, received the surrender of General Johnston upon the same terms, and the surrender

of all the Confederate armies soon followed. The number of Johnston's immediate command surrendered and paroled was thirty-six thousand eight hundred and seventeen, to whom were added fifty-two thousand four hundred and fifty-three in Georgia and Florida.

In the meantime, the country was shocked by the murder of President Lincoln. On April 14th, it had been his intention to attend the theatre at Washington, with Grant. Grant was unable to attend, and Lincoln, rather than disappoint the people, went, accompanied by his wife and Major Rathbone. An actor whose moving passion had always been an ambition for notoriety, entered his box, shot him, leaped upon the stage with a theatrical cry of "*Sic Semper Tyrannis!*" The South is avenged," and escaped.

At the same time that Lincoln was shot, an unsuccessful attempt was made upon the life of Mr. Seward, Secretary of State, in his own house. Mr. Seward was in bed, suffering from injuries received by a fall from his carriage, and the steel casing in which his head was supported saved his life.

It was found that a conspiracy had long been in progress among a few half-crazy Secessionists in and about the capital, and that the murder of Lincoln was the culmination of this. No man has ever been mourned as Mr. Lincoln was. His firmness of character, his kind-heartedness, his foresight and justice, seemed at times almost superhuman. Yet he was a man so eminently of the people, and of such democratic sympathy, that no one felt awed by him. He was one of the best representatives of pure republicanism, a statesman of the noble type which should belong to republics, and a man of such spontaneous and abundant humor that he appealed immediately to the common heart. A portion of his second inaugural address is worth quoting, as it gives an excellent insight into his calm and judicial character:

"Neither party expected for the war the magnitude or the duration which it has already attained. Neither anticipated that the cause of the conflict might cease when, or even before, the conflict itself should cease. Each looked for an easier triumph, and a result less fundamental and astonishing. Both read the same Bible and pray to the same God, and each invokes His aid against the other. It may seem strange that any man should dare to ask a just God's assistance in wringing their bread from the sweat of other men's faces. But let us judge not, that we be not judged. The prayers of both could not be answered; that of neither has been answered fully. If we shall suppose that Ameri-



SHERIDAN'S ATTACK UPON THE ARMY AT APPOINTMENT COURT HOUSE.

can slavery is one of those offences which in the providence of God must come, but which, having continued through His appointed time, He now wills to remove, and that He gives to both North and South this terrible war as the woe due to those by whom the offence came, shall we discern therein any departure from those divine attributes which the believers in a loving God always ascribes to Him? Fondly do we hope, fervently do we pray, that this mighty scourge of war may speedily pass away. Yet if God wills that it continue until all the wealth piled by the bondsman's two hundred and fifty years of unrequited toil shall be sunk, and until every drop of blood drawn with the lash shall be paid by another drawn with the sword, as was said three thousand years ago, so still it must be said: 'The judgments of the Lord are true and righteous altogether.' With malice toward none, with charity for all, with firmness in the right, as God gives us to see the right, let us strive to finish the work we are in, to bind up the national wounds, to care for him who shall have borne the battle, and for his widow and his orphan, to do all which may achieve and cherish a just and a lasting peace among ourselves and with all nations."

Mr. Lincoln was buried at his old home in Springfield, Illinois, which he had left four years before. No day passes that his grave is not visited, and the very clovers which grow about it are treasured in thousands of homes.

FOR FURTHER READING

HISTORY—Davis' "Rise and Fall of the Confederate Government."

Mahoney's "Prisoner of State."

Raymond's "History of Lincoln's Administration."

Boykin's "Evacuation of Richmond."

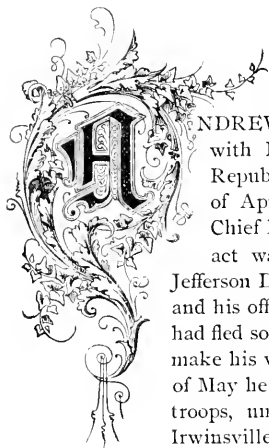
Grayson's "Great Conspiracy. Secret of the Assassination Plot."

POETRY—Florence Anderson's "Surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia."

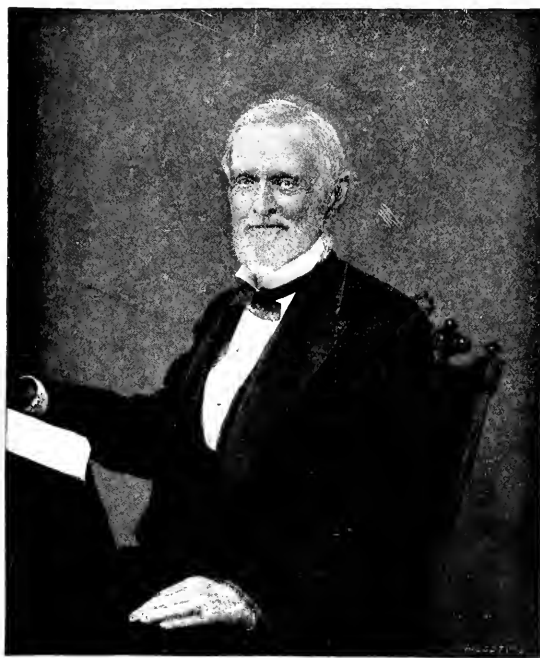
CHAPTER CII.

“Ye Cannot Serve Two Masters.”

ADMINISTRATION OF ANDREW JOHNSON—CAPTURE OF JEFFERSON
DAVIS—RECONSTRUCTION—IMPEACHMENT OF PRESI-
DENT JOHNSON—PURCHASE OF ALASKA—
RETURNING PROSPERITY TO
THE UNION.



ANDREW JOHNSON, of Tennessee, Vice-President with Lincoln, now became the President of the Republic. He took the oath of office on the 15th of April, 1865, thus becoming the seventeenth Chief Magistrate of the United States. His first act was to offer large rewards for the arrest of Jefferson Davis, President of the recent Confederacy, and his official associates. Davis, with a small escort, had fled southward, hoping to reach the Gulf coast and make his way out of the country. But on the 10th of May he was overtaken by a detachment of Federal troops, under Colonel Pritchard. He was then at Irwinsville, in the heart of Southern Georgia. Colonel Pritchard and his men came suddenly upon Davis' encampment in the woods, and captured him while he was trying to make his escape partly disguised in a woman's waterproof cloak. It is said that had not his heavy cavalry boots showed from below the cloak, his identity would not have been suspected. He was taken to Fortress Monroe, and kept there for several months under a charge of high treason. It developed in time that he had nothing to do with the plot for the murder of the President, and as many others were as guilty as he of treason, he was set at liberty upon bail. Cornelius Vanderbilt, Horace Greeley and Gerrit Smith, a life-long Abolitionist, went upon his bond. He has never been tried. As for the murderer of Abraham Lincoln, he died a wretched death. He was shot while defending his



JEFFERSON DAVIS.



Andrew Johnson

life in a burning barn, to which his pursuers had followed him, and from which they were trying to drag him. Four of his associates were hanged for complicity in the conspiracy, on the 7th of July, 1865. Three others were sent to the Dry Tortugas for hard labor during life, and another was condemned to six years of hard labor at the same place.

The people of the United States now hoped that these last black pages had closed the book of conspiracy, suffering and death which had marked the War of Secession. The boys—such as were left of them—were sent to their homes. On May 23d, the Army of the Potomac, and Sherman's army on the 24th, were reviewed before the Capitol and disbanded. In every town there were festivities and rejoicings, and in every town, too, there was much sorrow. It had cost the country nearly six hundred thousand lives, and more than six billion dollars to destroy the doctrine of State Sovereignty. But the United States was now established as a nation. Every man within its territory was free, and the people of the North were as magnanimous as possible toward the men they had defeated. The country was scarred with battle fields and graves, but among the judicious there was a desire to forget and to heal.

The task before the National Government was a great one. The people had troubled at the thought of it, even with the calm and just Lincoln to guide them. Without him, it seemed still more serious. To begin with, the financial condition of the country was as bad as it well could be. Gold was far below par. The National debt was two billion seven hundred and fifty-six million four hundred and thirty-one thousand five hundred and seventy-one dollars. The taxes laid upon the people were as high as they could well endure—not that they complained about them. In the States where the insurrection had existed, there was the greatest confusion. The people were divided on the question of what should be done with them. There were those who thought that treason was a crime which could never be regarded as a mere difference of political opinion, and that a crime so serious deserved serious punishment. Others believed that since the seceding States had been forced to remain in the Union, they should be represented upon the same basis, and with the same privileges, as the other States. No provisions had been made in the Constitution for the readmission of a State that had claimed the right to secede, and had withdrawn from the Union. On one hand, there was a fear that the negroes of the South, who outnumbered the whites, might take the

government of the South into their own hands—a most groundless fear to any acquainted with the negro disposition—and on the other hand there was a well-based fear that the negroes might be governed and controlled by their old masters in a spirit utterly at variance with justice and humanity. President Johnson did not understand how a State could be punished for treason. He therefore issued proclamations of qualified amnesty, removed the blockade from the ports as well as the restriction upon commercial intercourse with the border States. He appointed resident civilians as provisional governors over North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi and Texas. He asked these States to hold conventions, with a view of organizing State governments, and for the purpose of securing the election of representatives to Congress. The States were required to repeal the ordinances of secession, accept the abolition of slavery, repudiate the Southern war debts, and ratify, by a vote of the people, the several constitutional amendments. Before Congress met, in December, five States had formed with constitutions, and elected State officers and representatives to Congress. The Republicans were not satisfied with what the President had done, and looked to Congress for some modification of his action.

While Mr. Johnson's reorganization policy was causing those who engaged in the rebellion to congratulate themselves upon the ease with which they had escaped punishment, eleven different States prepared laws which were in direct defiance to liberty. These laws were called the "Black Codes" in the North. Mississippi enacted a law denying the ex-slave the right to acquire and dispose of public property. In several States, it was made a criminal offence, punishable with fine and imprisonment, for a freedman to leave his employer before the expiration of the term of service prescribed in a written contract. In one State, it was made a criminal offence for a negro to intrude himself into any religious or other assembly of white persons, into any railroad car or other public vehicle set apart for the exclusive accommodation of white people, upon conviction of which he should be sentenced to stand in a pillory for one hour, or be whipped not exceeding thirty-nine stripes, or both at the discretion of the jury.

When Congress met in December, 1865, with a Republican majority in both Houses, it hastened to appoint a committee to inquire into the condition of the States which formed the so-called Confederacy of America, and report whether they were entitled to be represented in either House of Congress. This committee was known as the Recon-

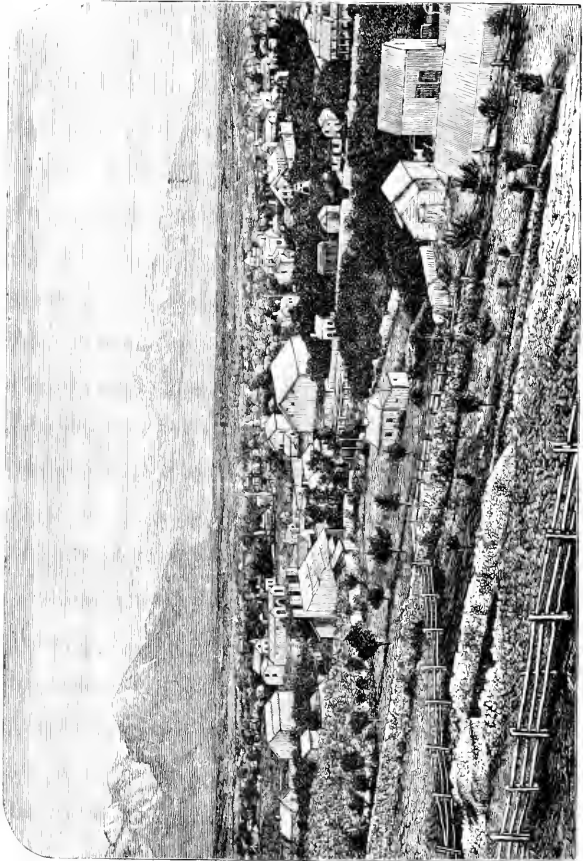
struction Committee, and their report was looked for by Congress and the entire nation with the utmost anxiety. They did not report till the following summer of 1866, and in the meantime the States which had seceded were not allowed representation in Congress. The attitude of Congress offended the President, and in a speech to the populace in front of the presidential mansion, he denounced the Republican party which had elected him to office. Thenceforth he made constant war upon the legislative branch of the Government, and caused such Cabinet members to resign as could not agree with him. He refused to pass a bill which provided for the reservation of three million acres of public land in the South for occupation by former slaves, and also vetoed a bill designed to confer the right of citizenship upon the freedmen, and to provide means for protecting them in the right. But Congress passed this bill over the veto of the President. It also passed the Fourteenth Amendment over the President's veto. The Fourteenth Amendment declared that all persons born or naturalized in the United States are citizens, and forbid any State to make or enforce any law which abridged the privileges of these citizens. In February, 1867, a bill was entered for the admission of Nebraska, which stipulated that Nebraska should never deny the right of voting to any person on account of his race or color. The President vetoed the bill, but Congress passed it over his veto.

On the 6th of February, 1867, a bill to provide efficient governments for the States in insurrection was read in the House. The States of Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Mississippi, Alabama, Louisiana, Florida, Texas and Arkansas were divided into five military districts, each under the government of a military officer, who should govern them by civil tribunals whenever he should decide them to be more appropriate than military commissions. The bill provided that these States should establish constitutions satisfactory to Congress, and not conflicting with the Constitution of the United States. The President vetoed this bill, but it was passed by Congress.

At this time Secretary Stanton was removed by the President from his position as Secretary of War. Stanton refused to resign, and Congress supported him in his refusal. For this and other reasons President Johnson was impeached for high crimes and misdemeanors. After a long trial, which closed on May 16, 1868, the vote for conviction was thirty-five and for acquittal nineteen. As it needed the vote of two-thirds of the Senators for conviction, the President was acquitted.

During Lincoln's administration West Virginia was formally ad-

nitted to the Union as a separate State. This was in 1863. In 1867
Newaska was admitted as a State of the Union. The immense region
called Alaska had also been purchased from the Russian Government,



VIEW OF SALT LAKE CITY, LOOKING SOUTHEAST.

in 1867, for more than seven million dollars. Its area is about half a
million square miles, and this brought the whole area to about three

million five hundred thousand square miles, instead of the original eight hundred thousand. There were now thirty-seven States and twelve Territories, with a population of more than thirty-eight million.

The year 1866 was marked by the laying of a successful and permanent Atlantic cable. A strong, flexible cable was shipped on board the *Great Eastern*, which, after a prosperous voyage, arrived at Heart's Content, Newfoundland. It then returned to the mid-Atlantic, where the end of the cable which had been laid in 1865 was grappled, and a splice was made. This line has never failed, and marine cables have increased rapidly since.

In 1867 the National Grange, for the promotion of the farming interests of the country, was organized at Washington. This order has now spread all over the United States, and though the enthusiasm which attended its birth has died out, it has done not a little toward elevating the condition of the farmer, increasing the value of his products, and putting him on a firmer business footing with the consumer.

The Union Pacific Railroad, which crosses nine mountain ranges and links the Atlantic with the Pacific, was completed on May 10, 1869, at Promontory Point, Utah. The last tie of laurel wood, with a plate of silver upon it, was laid, and the last spike, composed of iron, silver and gold, was driven in the presence of many onlookers. The telegraph wires were attached to the last rail, and the blows telegraphed to many parts of the continent the completion of the road. The total length of the road is two thousand miles. Its cost was one hundred and twelve million two hundred and fifty-nine thousand three hundred and sixty dollars.

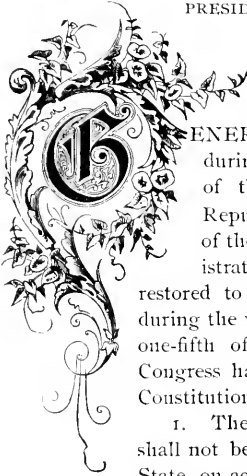
FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY**—Partridge's "Making of the American Nation."
 Loring's "History of Reconstruction."
 W. H. Bancroft's "Alaska."
 Field's "History of American Telegraph."
FICTION—A. W. Tourgee's "Hot Plowshares."
 A. W. Tourgee's "Bricks Without Straw."
 A. W. Tourgee's "A Fool's Errand."
 C. Reid's "Valerie Aylmer."
POETRY—Lowell's "Washers of the Shroud."
 Walt Whitman's "My Captain."

CHAPTER CIII.

A Hundred Years of Liberty.

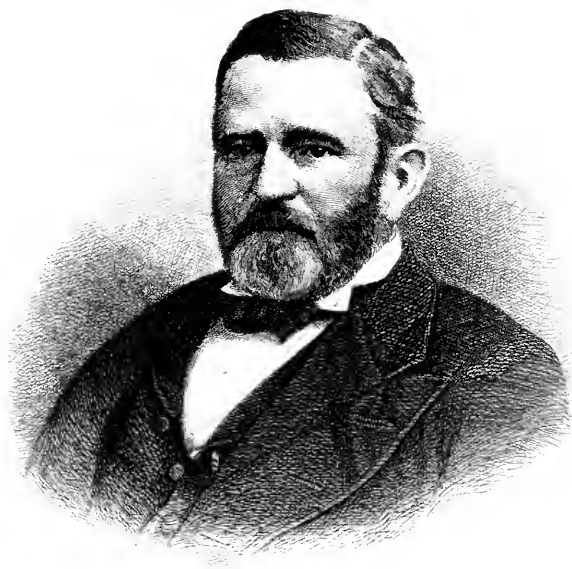
ADMINISTRATION OF GRANT—THE KU-KLUX KLAN—THE CHICAGO
FIRE—THE CUSTER MASSACRE—THE PANIC OF 1873—THE
CENTENNIAL EXPOSITION—ADMINISTRATION OF
PRESIDENT HAYES—RAILROAD
RIOTS OF 1877.



GENERAL ULYSSES S. GRANT, whose services during the war had so endeared him to the hearts of the American people, was elected by the Republican party, and inaugurated as President of the United States in 1869. During his administration all the seceded States became finally restored to the Union. The enormous debt incurred during the war was very greatly decreased. More than one-fifth of it (\$600,000,000) was paid. Meanwhile, Congress had passed the Fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution. This amendment reads:

1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be abridged by the United States, or by any State, on account of race, color or previous condition of servitude.
2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

The South was in a fever of anxiety about what it termed "negro supremacy." It claimed that the freedom of speech and press had been overthrown; that the American capital was converted into a bastille, and that a system of spies and official espionage had been established, to which no constitutional monarchy of Europe would dare to resort. Matters in the South had been complicated by the fact that at the close of the war thousands of Northern men had settled there. These Northern settlers met with a hostile reception, and their interference in



G. S. Grant

the government of the South aroused the wildest indignation. They were termed "Carpet-Baggers," for the reason that they usually stayed but a short time in the South, and, metaphorically speaking, carried their possessions in a carpet-bag. The more liberal men of all parties are willing to admit now that these "Carpet-Baggers" were often guilty of ill-timed and officious acts. It was largely their presence in the South which called into existence the terrible secret society known as the Ku-Klux Klan. In some places this society was known as the "Pale Faces," and in others, as the "Knights of White Camelia." These wished to frighten the ex-slaves, in order to keep them from taking part in the elections; to rid the country of "Carpet-Baggers," and to sustain, as far as might be, the former slave-holding power in the "irreconcilable South." This order prevailed in all parts of the Confederacy, and was so secret that no member knew who any of the others might be. When the men met they were always masked. This organization sent out armed men, who patrolled communities, intimidating men, and committing murder and other crimes. As the identity of the members could not be proved, they were neither caught nor tried. So great was the alarm caused by the Ku-Klux that the Governor of Tennessee, in 1868, called an extra session of the legislature, to provide measures of protection against the order. A committee reported that for six months, saying nothing of other outrages, the murders had averaged not less than one in each twenty-four hours. It reported that in fourteen counties of North Carolina, there had been eighteen murders and three hundred and fifteen whippings. In twenty-nine counties of Georgia, there were seventy-two murders and one hundred and twenty-six whippings. In twenty-six counties of Alabama, two hundred and fifteen murders and one hundred and sixteen other outrages, and in Louisiana, in 1868, there were more than one thousand murders. The particulars of this persecution by the Ku-Klux are as wild, romantic and terrible as any tale of feudal and uncivilized times; to re-admit the seceded States into the Union under such circumstances, was a delicate and a dangerous task. The chief requirement for re-admission was, that each of the States should ratify the Fifteenth Amendment. Congress now determined that the amendment should be enforced, and authorized the President to use the army to prevent violations of law, and make penal any interference, by fraud or force, with the right of full and free manhood suffrage. Federal supervisors were appointed to oversee elections in cities of over twenty thousand inhabitants. This continued for several years.

In 1871, the people of the Northwest suffered a great blow from the partial destruction by fire of Chicago, the commercial center and the chief port of that district. The fire broke out on the 8th of October, and originated from the explosion of a lamp kicked over by an angry cow. For two days it raged almost unchecked, and was sustained by a fierce wind. It spread over two thousand one hundred and twenty-four acres, and destroyed seventeen thousand four hundred and fifty buildings. The loss was almost one hundred and seventy-five million dollars, and ninety-eight thousand people were made homeless. At the same time a terrible fire devastated Northeastern Wisconsin. Here the fire was accompanied by a hurricane, and swept through forests, fields and villages, leaving nothing but charred earth in its track. Over one thousand lives were lost. The town of Peshtigo was entirely swept out of existence. Here the fire rushed upon them with a loud roar, apparently almost out of the sky, and without any warning. Six hundred lives were lost in this town alone. Throughout the northern part of Michigan there were similar experiences, and indeed the entire Northwest suffered from fires, any one of which would have been famous at another time, but which, in a year of general catastrophe, were thought little of. The season was one of unprecedented dryness, the air was hot and the wind high, and this accounted, no doubt, for the frequency of these disasters.

Meanwhile, in spite of all difficulties and drawbacks, the American nation had been rapidly progressing. Its triumphs of mechanical ingenuity were unequaled. Its literature, its science, its art, were beginning to win recognition. Its system of popular education was remarkable. It had been proved to the world that a republican government on a large scale was practicable, and that the people were as well able to defend their principles as a king to defend his. Even the constant arrival of thousands of emigrants unacquainted with republican ideas, and full of an inherited dislike for government, was not able to seriously hinder the onward sweep of improvement. It was several years later before these people became so numerous or their mistaken ideas so prominent as to cause concern.

In the autumn of 1872, President Grant was re-elected. Henry Wilson was chosen Vice-President, in the place of Schuyler Colfax. Shortly after Grant's second inauguration, in 1873, the Government became involved in troubles with the Modoc Indians. At a friendly conference, the Indians murdered General Canby and a clergyman, in April of 1873. Four of the leaders were hanged in the following



MASSACRE OF GENERAL CUSTER AND COMMAND

October for their treachery. But the insincerity was not all upon the side of the Indians, and the policy of the Government toward this unhappy race of people has always been vacillating and selfish. Late in June, 1876, General Custer and his command of three hundred men were attacked at Little Big Horn river, in Montana Territory, and destroyed. Only one man escaped to tell the particulars of the direful defeat. The terrible manner in which these men met their death, and the indignities which were committed upon their dead bodies, aroused the keenest horror, and the management of the Indians from that time on has been more severe.

Mention should be made of two great political parties which had been formed, and which, though neither of them have been in power or even near to power, have had much influence in political as well as moral matters. The Temperance party was organized in 1872, and consisted of a national combination of local temperance organizations, which had been in existence for many years. This received the name of the Prohibition Reform party, in 1876. It awakened much enthusiasm in the cause of temperance, and in the course of time Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Rhode Island, Kansas and Iowa adopted prohibition principles, making it a punishable crime to sell liquor within the limits of the States. A number of other States are known as Local Option States, and have prohibitory districts. The second party mentioned is known as the Labor Reform National party. It grew out of the combinations of workingmen called 'Trades' Unions. How this party was weakened in later years by the movements of a body of men known as Anarchists, and too often confounded by unthinking persons with the men of the labor party, must be told in another chapter.

In 1873 occurred a great financial panic, which spread in the course of the year over the whole country. Firms in every part of the Union failed, and business for the time was almost paralyzed. The effect upon the laboring classes was most unfortunate. Everyone was afraid of losing money and locked it up, when it was most needed by the people. Mills were closed, great railroad enterprises suddenly abandoned, and speculation ceased. The great credit system was largely at fault for this commercial crash, and the business of the country was perilously speculative in its nature. It turned thousands of tramps upon the country; it ruined thousands of rich men, and, perhaps, among other things, it brought a few rich men to their senses, and showed them that honest industry is worth much more than a genius for speculation. It was four years before the country recovered from the results of this panic.

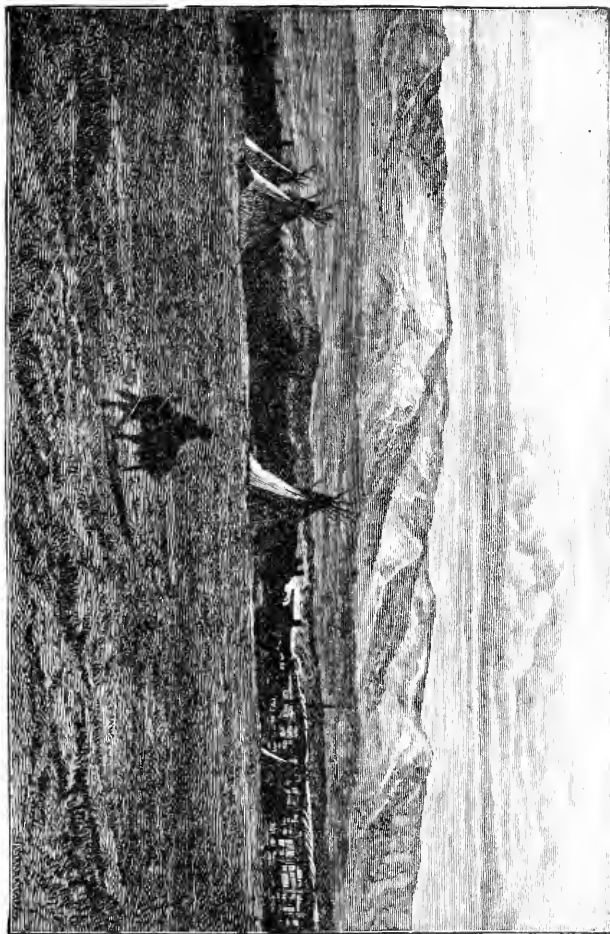
In this year Elisha Gray, of Chicago, invented the instrument which became the basis of the modern telephone. The adaptation of it to the human voice, in 1873, by Professor Bell, of Boston, completed the invention.

Grant's second administration was marked by some grave political scandals, among which was that of the *Credit Mobilier*. This was a corporation which placed a large amount of money in the Union Pacific Company, and induced many men of capital to embark in the enterprise, and to take stock both in the Union Pacific Company and in the *Credit Mobilier* Company. Mr. Oakes Ames was a leader in this enterprise, and he presented shares of stock to a considerable number of members of Congress. It was claimed that he did this for the purpose of keeping Congress friendly and favorable to the Pacific Railroad, and it occasioned much concern and indignation throughout the United States, for it was feared that bribery might become open and frequent in Congress, and the liberty of the people seriously endangered. The only punishment which Mr. Oakes Ames and his most culpable sympathizer, James Brooks, received, was the absolute condemnation of the House. Both gentlemen died within three months after these resolutions of condemnation were passed, broken in reputation and self-respect. Without doubt, however, bribery of one sort or another is frequent at Washington.

The Democratic party at about this time demanded investigations of the New York Custom House, the United States Treasury, the Navy Department and various other institutions, but comparatively little was proved against the Administration. In the South, matters became so grave that General Sheridan was sent to New Orleans to see that law and order was enforced there, and to oppose the movements of the White League. This league had constantly assaulted and disfranchised the blacks, so that it became necessary to protect the freedmen. Shortly after this was done the country became disturbed by another scandal. This was an extensive whisky ring, organized to control legislation so as to avoid revenue taxes. It consisted of an association of distillers, in collusion with Federal officers, and succeeded for a time in defrauding the Government of the tax on spirituous liquors. Following this came the impeachment of William W. Belknap, the Secretary of War. He was charged with selling an Indian trading post. Up to this time he had been much respected, and it was a great grief to the people that he should have been found guilty of treachery.

It is pleasant to turn from these dark political pages to the centennial

celebration of the independence of the United States. There were festivals and meetings all over the United States, and a great inter-



DENVER TWENTY YEARS AGO.

national exhibition was held at Philadelphia in honor of the event

Thirty-three nations were represented by their industries, and almost ten million people visited the exhibition, so that nearly four million dollars were received for admission alone. A great impulse was given to American industry, and the United States had much cause to be proud of its inventive skill, and some cause, to tell the truth, to be ashamed of its art work, which was poor, compared with that of the older nations. During the year 1876 Colorado was admitted into the Union as a State, making thirty-eight States and eleven territories.

The next presidential election was attended with much excitement. Rutherford B. Hayes, of Ohio, and William A. Wheeler, of New York, were the presidential and vice-presidential candidates of the Republican party. Those of the Democratic party were Samuel J. Tilden, of New York, and Thomas A. Hendricks, of Indiana. The votes of the States were very closely divided between these two candidates, and the decision depended upon the votes of two doubtful States. It was generally admitted that the Democrats had legally chosen one hundred and eighty-four electors and the Republicans one hundred and seventy-three, but the four votes of Florida and the eight votes of Louisiana were in doubt. If all of these were to be counted for Mr. Hayes he would have a majority of one. The Returning Boards of these two States declared that Republican electors had been chosen. These Boards were bodies of men appointed after the war by the laws of these States, and were authorized not only to count the votes actually cast, but to throw out the votes of neighborhoods where there had been violence or intimidation. The Republicans maintained that these Boards had exercised their power rightfully, but the Democrats claimed that they had unjustly thrown out a great many Democratic votes which should rightfully have been counted. The Republicans thought that the fraud and violence of the Democrats in some parts of these States had been so great as to justify the action of the Returning Boards. The question was a difficult one, and there was nothing in the Constitution to aid in its settlement. Throughout the country the excitement was great, and many feared that a civil war was at hand. Week after week passed by and at length the wiser men of both parties in Congress decided that the best plan was to appoint an Electoral Commission, to which all doubtful votes should be referred. Five Senators, five Representatives and five Justices of the Supreme Court composed this body, and it decided by a vote of eight to seven that the votes of Florida and Louisiana must be counted as the Returning Boards had reported them, because these Boards had been legally appointed by those particular States, and the other States could



THE MAID OF THE MIST GOING THROUGH THE WHIRLPOOL RAPIDS.

not revise or reject their returns. This decision gave Hayes and Wheeler one hundred and eighty-five votes, and Tilden and Hendricks one hundred and eighty-four. Hayes and Wheeler were therefore declared to be elected, and were inaugurated on March 5, 1877, but during the whole of their administration there was a bitter spirit between the two parties, and the Democrats could not forget that the Electoral Commission had been composed of eight Republicans and seven Democrats, and that all of these men had voted precisely as their party principles had prompted them to do. Fortunately, Mr. Hayes was a man of peaceable and conciliatory disposition. Though not a brilliant man, he was ambitious to be a just one. Mr. Hayes began by making up his Cabinet from both parties, which was a very uncommon thing. It had long been the motto of the parties "to the victor belongs the spoils," and following up this motto the Presidents conferred the offices within their appointment upon those who had supported them, regardless of their ability or honesty of purpose. Mr. Hayes, therefore, gave offence. He withdrew all United States soldiers from the State Houses of any of the States which had belonged to the Confederacy, and prohibited the interference of United States troops with the elections in those States. Many of the people objected seriously to this, and especially to the withdrawal of troops from South Carolina, which of all the States of the South was the most difficult to control. But the President insisted that his principle was right, and that since South Carolina had been readmitted as a State, she could not be treated as conquered territory. The effect was indeed beneficial, and the States continued to grow more peaceful from that time on. Injustice, intimidation and contempt certainly exist still in the treatment of the colored people, but it is hoped that by another generation this will die out, and many negroes have taken the remedy into their own hands. During the summer of 1879 there was a great exodus of the negroes from the States of the South to those of the Northwest. The negroes were received kindly in Kansas and Indiana, and have therefore settled extensively in those States.

During the summer of 1877, our Government engaged in a war with the hitherto friendly Nez Perces Indians. These were subdued by our arms as usual, and made our enemies.

The Government and banks of the United States resumed specie payments on January 1, 1879. It was feared among business men that this might cause much embarrassment, but the change from paper money to silver and gold was accomplished with ease. During Hayes' administration there was a great agitation concerning the emigration of natives

of China into the United States. The workingmen claimed that they lowered the price of American labor, and protested that they could not compete with them. The President vetoed the bill restricting their emigration, but the newspapers did not permit the subject to die out, and in 1888 the bill restricting emigration was passed.

It was during Hayes' administration that the agitation of the workingmen began to have its serious effect. In July, 1877, there was a great convulsion among the railroad hands on the central roads of the United States. The beginning was on July 17th, when the brakemen and firemen on the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad refused to work, and prevented others from working, because their wages had been reduced ten per cent. By the next day the entire road was in possession of the strikers. A call for aid was made upon the Government, to which President Hayes responded with a body of Federal troops and a proclamation to the rioters to disperse. At Pittsburg, there was a special intensity of feeling, and the excitement was great in Chicago. The Tradesmen's Union held a meeting and resolutions were passed demanding concessions from the companies. By the 20th, Pittsburg was completely in the power of the rioters, and fifteen hundred trains were stopped. At Baltimore, the Maryland regiments were ordered out, and as they were leaving their armory were met by a crowd of several thousand. These stoned the regiments until they were obliged to fire in self-defense. Several men were killed. On the 21st, the State militia of Pennsylvania arrived at Pittsburg and a terrible scene of riot and violence followed. The militia found their enemies so formidable that they took refuge in the railroad round-house. From here they fired upon the crowd. The mob had sacked the gun stores, and returned the fire with enthusiasm. By setting fire to some cars of petroleum they forced the militia to leave the round-house. The fire spread rapidly and the railroad property was soon in ruins. Throughout the 22d and 23d the disturbance continued.

Serious riots broke out in Philadelphia, and the excitement spread to Chicago, St. Louis and San Francisco. But before a fortnight was over order was restored. Some of the companies compromised with the strikers, and others ran their trains with new employes.

The following year was marked by a terrible plague in the South. Seven thousand deaths were caused in the months of August, September and October of 1878, by yellow fever. Whole villages were deserted by the panic which accompanied it, and the industries of the South, still young and uncertain, were almost crushed by the disaster.



Sincerely
R. B. Mayo

During this year Thomas A. Edison brought the phonograph to the attention of the world. This remarkable instrument, which is now becoming of practical use, will repeat, after any interval of time, the words which have been spoken into it. The mechanical inventions in the United States within the last twenty-five years have been unprecedented for their number and their utility. The utilization of natural gas for heat and light, the heating of houses by steam, the common use of hydraulic power, the progress in mining, and the experiments in explosives, not to mention the improvements in looms and all sorts of practical machinery, are remarkable.

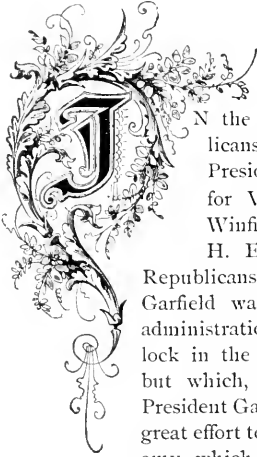
FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY**—Andreas' "History of Chicago."
 Phelps' "Life and Public Services of U. S. Grant."
 Howard's "Life of Hayes."
FICTION—Mrs. Whitney's "A Summer in Leslie Goldthait's Life."
 J. G. Holland's "Arthur Bomycastle."
 O. W. Holmes' "Elsie Venner."
 H. W. Beecher's "Norwood."
 Mrs. Stowe's "Oldtown Folks."
 F. B. Aldrich's "Queen of Sheba."
 F. B. Aldrich's "Mergery Daw."
 Mrs. St. John's "Bella."
POETRY—Whittier's "Centennial Hymn."
 E. Renaud's "Chicago."
 Longfellow's "Revenge of Rain-on-Face."

CHAPTER CIV.

The Old Haymarket.

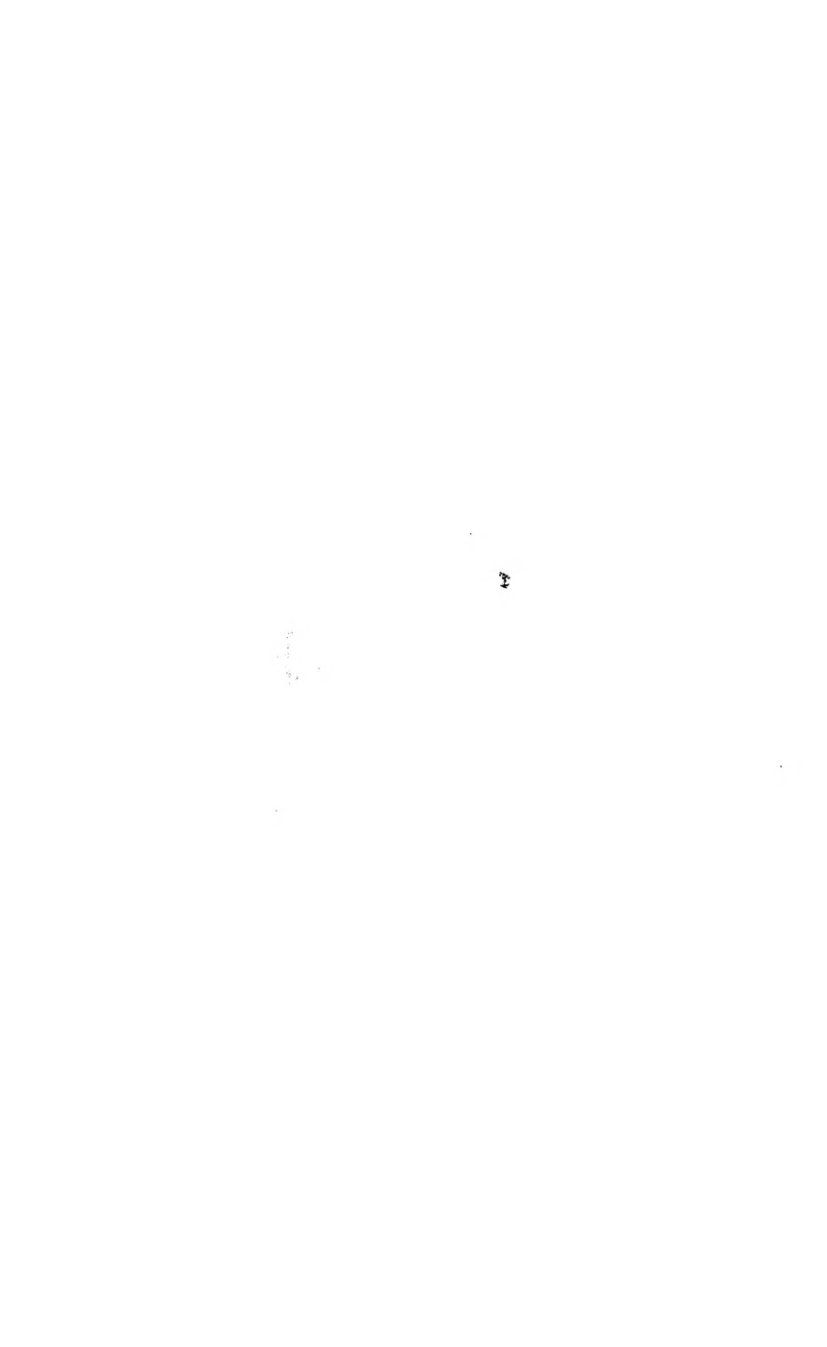
ELECTION AND DEATH OF PRESIDENT JAMES A. GARFIELD—ADMINISTRATION OF ARTHUR—THE ANARCHISTS OF CHICAGO.

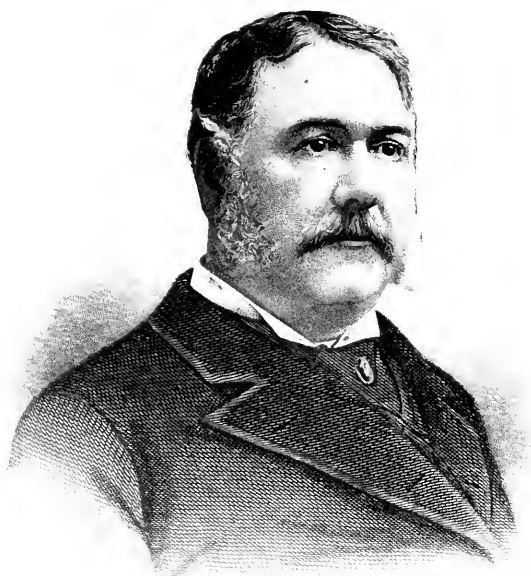


IN the National Convention of 1880, the Republicans nominated James A. Garfield, of Ohio, for President, and Chester A. Arthur, of New York, for Vice-President. The Democrats nominated Winfield S. Hancock, of New York, and William H. English, of Indiana. At this election the Republicans won by a decided majority, and President Garfield was inaugurated March 4, 1881. Garfield's administration opened with what was known as a deadlock in the Senate, which was a mere matter of party, but which, at the time, caused no little discussion. President Garfield announced it as his intention to make a great effort to rid the United States of the shame of polygamy, which exists in Utah, and his best efforts would doubtless have been devoted to this end but for his untimely death. On July 2, 1881, while waiting for a train in the railway station at Washington, President Garfield was shot and mortally wounded by a half-insane creature, whose name deserves no place in history. The President was taken to the White House, where he lay between life and death for many weeks. He confessed to a great desire for being near the sea, and on September 6th, was taken to Elberon, New Jersey. Here, on the nineteenth of September, he died, mourned by the whole nation. His industrious, wholesome life, and the fact that he had risen from a poor boyhood, worked his way through college till he stood at the head of it, served faithfully in camp till he became a general, and maintained his position in Congress with so much dignity that he was chosen President, made him seem to the youth of America the typical



James A. Garfield





Charles A. Follen

man of the Republic. He was mourned in Europe as well as in America, and when he died, the British court, as well as the friends of the President at Washington, went into mourning. His death was not the result of any conspiracy, nor of political hostility, but the act of one egotistical and half-insane man, who was angry at being refused an office. The murderer was tried, and hung on June 30, 1882. Meanwhile, Vice-President Arthur had succeeded to the presidency, taking the oath of office at New York, September 20, 1881, and again more formally, two days after, at Washington. No new States were added to the Union during Arthur's administration. The nation was prosperous and peaceful, and Arthur's inaugural address was notable by reason of its being the first one in twenty years that contained no reference to the Southern States as a distinct part of the nation. It was evident that the great sectional contest was drawing to an end, and all the bitterness of feeling which had attended it was disappearing.

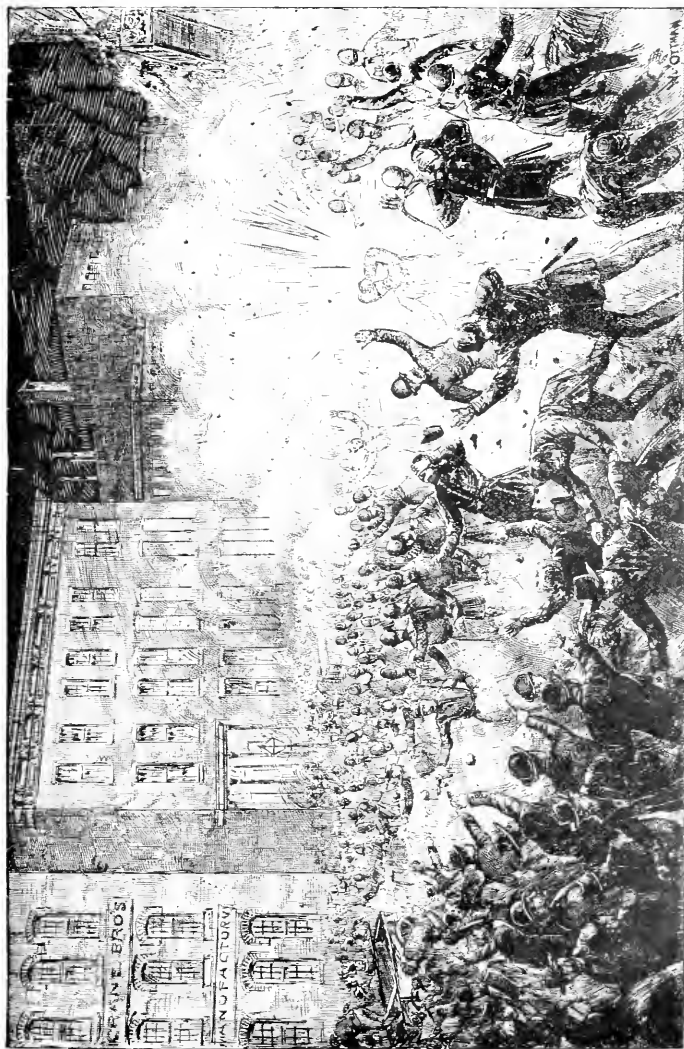
The history of a nation should not be made up of its wars and its disasters. By rights, the greater part of its pages should be devoted to those intervals of peace when education flourishes, industry increases, and the influence of home life is most felt. At such times one may, if he chooses, estimate rightly the comparative position of his nation, its advantages and disadvantages, and judge rightly its value to the world.

In 1879, as has been said, specie payment was resumed in the United States, and ever since that time the national currency has been at par value. Any one who possesses a paper dollar can receive a gold or silver dollar for it without difficulty. This placed commerce upon a more certain foundation. Industry has gradually increased, and we have begun to manufacture many articles which we formerly imported almost entirely from Europe. Watches, cotton, woolen, silk, the finest musical instruments, carriages, furniture, cutlery, railroad iron, carpets and decorative fabrics are among those industries which have been taken up at a comparatively recent time, and the products of which are sold, not only in America, but on the other side of the water. In other ways we are not doing as well as we once did. We no longer possess a navy of any sort whatever, and no foreign sea is ever decorated with the American flag. This has come largely from the fact that iron vessels have taken the place of wooden ones, and that England has greater advantages for building iron vessels than America possesses. As it is a law that a vessel must carry the flag of the country it is built in, the purchase of vessels will not remedy this deficiency.

Another great drawback in this country is the rapid growth of

monopoly. The telegraph, the railroads, oil, coal and many other necessities are governed by rich corporations, who are able to ask any price that they choose, and have the power to keep down all competition. A large class of men who follow the teachings of a modern economist and philosopher named Henry George, believe that all necessities of this sort should be owned and managed by the Government. They also believe that land should be public property as much as air or water. The great question of the country is at present, and must remain for many years, the adjustment of capital and labor. There has long been a cry from all parts of the country for co-operative work. A foolish and impassioned set of men, most of whom are emigrants from the monarchies of Europe, and known as Anarchists, are among those who have formed themselves into a party to combat monopoly and undue wealth.

On May 4, 1886, this discontent culminated in a terrible tragedy at the city of Chicago. An open-air meeting was held by the discontented party at the old Haymarket, on the West Side of the city. As the attitude of these men had been threatening for several weeks, a company of policemen were sent to preserve order. Their presence and their demeanor inflamed the wrath of some madman in the crowd, and a dynamite bomb was thrown into their midst, killing one policeman immediately and wounded sixty-seven others. The bomb was probably thrown by a German named Schnaubelt. This man fled, and was never captured. Seven policemen in all died, from the results of the riot. The city was seriously alarmed. There were rumors of a great conspiracy. It was whispered that a plot existed to burn the city to the ground. A raid was made on the office of the *Arbeiter Zeitung*, the organ of the Anarchists. Here dynamite bombs and infernal machines were found, as well as a large number of circulars on which there was an appeal to the workmen to arm themselves. It is said by the friends of the Anarchists that these circulars were not intended for distribution. They maintained that some ill-advised person had put that appeal upon the circulars without the knowledge of the men who were to speak at the Haymarket meeting which the circulars announced. It is said that Albert Parsons, one of the best known of the Anarchist leaders, refused to speak at the meeting unless other circulars were printed which did not contain that seditious injunction. These milder circulars had been printed and circulated, and those left in the office, it is said, were to be destroyed. But even when this point is conceded, it does not explain the presence of dynamite.



THE ANARCHIST RIOT—EXPLOSION OF THE BOMB, HAYMARKET SQUARE, CHICAGO, ON THE EVENING
OF MAY 4, 1886.

Eight leaders of the Anarchists were arrested on charge of conspiracy and murder. They were August Spies, Albert R. Parsons, Samuel Fielden, Oscar Neebe, George Engel, Louis Ling, Michael Schwab and Adolph Fischer. It is maintained by the Anarchists that some of these men were not acquainted with each other; that they had never met until they were brought together in the court-room, and that obviously no conspiracy could have existed between them. On the other hand, it was maintained by many witnesses that each of these men had been heard making incendiary speeches, and evidence was brought before the grand jury which convinced that body that a conspiracy had actually existed for the destruction of the city. It is, however, admitted by all that the excitement of the time caused injustice to at least a part of these men. They were far from being equally guilty; they had not all acted in complicity, and they should have had separate trials. But the terrible sufferings of the policemen who were the victims of these misguided men worked upon the sympathies of the people, and interfered to some extent with the cause of justice. On August 3d, after a long trial, a verdict of guilty was rendered. Oscar Neebe was given fifteen years in the penitentiary. The rest of the men were sentenced to be hung. Before the ominous day of execution was reached, a petition, signed by the leading citizens of the city, begged a commutation of sentence for Fielden and Schwab, who were more temperate and judicious than their compatriots. As a consequence, these two men were condemned to life imprisonment. Before the day of execution, Louis Ling, the most impassioned and the youngest of the condemned Anarchists, committed suicide by setting fire to a dynamite cartridge in his mouth. It is held by some of the Anarchists that he did not commit suicide, but was murdered by the jail officials, who gave him a loaded cigar to smoke. He died within a few hours. A short time before his death a dynamite bomb was found in his cell. As all persons who visited the Anarchists were thoroughly searched before they were admitted to the jail, and as officers were present at every interview, the way in which that bomb came to be in his cell has always been an unsolved mystery. The manner in which it was found was suspicious. Ling was awakened from his sleep in the early morning, dragged hastily from his room, and confined in another cell. The jail officials then produced a bomb, which they claimed was found beneath his bed. Their word may be taken for what it was worth.

On the 11th of November, 1887, Parsons, Spies, Fischer and Engel were hung in the jail on the North Side of the city. They refused to

ask for pardon, and died heroically, sincerely believing themselves to be the martyrs of a righteous cause. That their efforts were misguided, futile and harmful, the judicious cannot doubt, but that they deserved death, may well be questioned. Socialism was incalculably injured by the agitation of the Anarchists, and the great question of the amelioration of the laboring man's lot was in no way solved, either by their lives or their deaths. They are remembered with execration by many, with unchecked devotion by a few, and with sincere regret by the majority. With the exception of Parsons, they were not Americans, and they brought to this country the hatred of government which they had acquired in Europe. Furthermore, the ruling political party of Chicago was Irish, the police force was composed almost entirely of Irishmen, and a bitterness of feeling existed between this race and the Germans in the cosmopolitan city of the tragedy. The Anarchists were Germans. Both the policemen and the Anarchists went to lengths, which were prompted by race hatred. The affair was but in a very small degree American, but the movement was not an unadulterated injury to America, for it inspired her broader-minded people with a judicious pity as well as a greater caution. Such men realized that the State should not alone cure diseases, but should try to prevent them, and they admitted to themselves that had these enthusiastic and impassioned men been checked at the proper point, or guided into the right channels, they might have been saved from themselves. That they were not altogether bad is proven by the fact that a man of clear judgment like William Dean Howells, one of the greatest of American writers, chooses to publicly and respectfully observe the anniversary of their deaths.

FOR FURTHER READING.

- FICTION**—R. Edwards' "Twice Defeated."
 G. W. Curtis' "Trumps."
 "The Bread Winners," Anon.
 Mrs. Burnet's "Through One Administration."
 R. H. Newell's "Avery Glibun."
 Bayard Taylor's "John Godfrey's Fortune."
 R. B. Kimball's "Henry Powers, Banker."
 R. B. Kimball's "Undercurrent of Wall Street."
POETRY—D. Bethune Duffield's "A Dirge."
 N. P. Willis' Poems.
 George Arnold's Poems.
 O. W. Holmes' Poems.
 T. B. Aldrich's Poems.

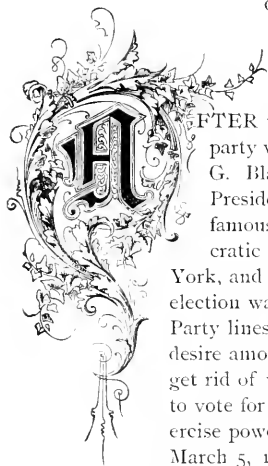


Green Cleveland

CHAPTER CV.

Civil-Service Reform.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND'S ADMINISTRATION—CIVIL SERVICE REFORM
AND PENSION BILLS—MANY NOTED UNION GENERALS PASS
AWAY—DEATH OF GENERAL GRANT—PROMI-
NENT EVENTS OF FOUR YEARS
OF DEMOCRATIC
POWER.



AFTER twenty-four years of power, the Republican party was defeated in the election of 1884. James G. Blaine, of Maine, was their candidate for President, and John A. Logan, of Illinois, the famous general, for Vice-President. The Democratic nominees were Grover Cleveland, of New York, and Thomas A. Hendricks, of Indiana. This election was marked by a growing spirit of liberality. Party lines disappeared to an extent, and there was a desire among the more honest men of the nation to get rid of what was known as machine politics, and to vote for the man who seemed most worthy to exercise power. President Cleveland was inaugurated March 5, 1885, with Mr. Hendricks as Vice-President, who, however, died November 28, 1885. After the

death of Vice-President Hendricks, a law was passed by Congress, providing that in case of the death of both President and Vice-President, the Secretary of State should be the successor to the presidency. A law had been previously passed, known as the Civil Service Act, under which the appointments to certain offices should thenceforth be made by competitive examination. The object of this law was to do away with the spoils system, to assure greater permanency, and to prevent the selection of politicians in the place of reliable and educated persons.

President Cleveland was born at Caldwell, New Jersey, March 18, 1837. Three years later he was taken to Fayetteville, near Syracuse, New York, where his father, who was a Presbyterian minister, received a salary of one thousand dollars. The boy, Grover Cleveland, was given a common school education, and as soon as he was old enough, became a clerk in a village store. In 1853, the father died at Holland Patent, New York, and his son was thrown upon his own resources. He went to New York City, and became a teacher of the blind in an institution where his brother held a position. A year later he started West, and meeting an uncle at Buffalo, settled there. He studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1859. In 1869 he was elected sheriff of Erie County, and in 1881 he became mayor of Buffalo. In 1882 he was elected Governor of New York by a sweeping majority, unparalleled in the history of American elections. While he still held office, in July, 1884, he was called by the Democratic National Convention to be the standard-bearer in the presidential contest.

After the inauguration, President Cleveland's first duty was to announce his Cabinet, and the day he took his oath of office he sent the following nominations to the Senate: Secretary of State, Thomas F. Bayard, of Delaware; Secretary of the Treasury, Daniel Manning, of New York; Secretary of the Interior, Lucius Q. C. Lamar, of Mississippi; Secretary of War, William C. Endicott, of Massachusetts; Secretary of the Navy, William C. Whitney, of New York; Postmaster-General, William F. Vilas, of Wisconsin; Attorney-General, Augustus H. Garland, of Arkansas. Before the close of the Administration there were several changes in the Cabinet, as it was first framed. Charles F. Fairchild succeeded Daniel Manning as Secretary of the Treasury, Mr. Manning having resigned on account of ill health. Lucius Q. C. Lamar was appointed to the Supreme Bench, and William F. Vilas became Secretary of the Interior, Don M. Dickinson taking his place as Postmaster-General.

The most difficult question that confronted President Cleveland was the distribution of official patronage. It had long been the custom of the Government to give all appointive offices to its own partisans. This usage, well established since the time of President Jackson, was the origin and cause of much abuse of office in the various departments of the Government. Extreme party men maintained the principle, "To the victors belong the spoils." The best politicians advocated civil-service reform, and worked against the old practice of appointing men for party service, and not for personal ability. In the evenly con-

tested elections of 1880 and 1884, it became necessary for both parties to conciliate civil-service reformers. It was they who threw their influence for Cleveland in the hotly contested election, and he went into office pledged to carry out the views of those who, trusting the sincerity of his belief in civil-service reform, had raised him to power. No Chief Magistrate ever had more confusing questions to decide, or a more difficult work to take up. In his perplexing position, President Cleveland showed rare judgment. His sturdy strength of character and natural independence of spirit carried him through many a trying ordeal, and his most bitter political opponents could not impugn his honesty, integrity and common sense.

During President Cleveland's administration it was rather strange that there should be a revival of interest in regard to the civil war, which did not tend to allay sectional feeling between the North and the South. Many of the leading participants in the war contributed personal reminiscences of the battles in which they fought, and although such authentic accounts of the great civil struggle are invaluable from an historical standpoint, they naturally recalled painful memories and delayed a perfect amalgamation between former opponents. In 1875, General William T. Sherman had published a book containing his memories of the war, and Alexander H. Stevens, late Vice-President of the Confederacy, had told the story from the other side in a volume called "War Between the States." In 1884 General Grant published a series of articles in the *Century Magazine*, and the wide interest they awakened induced him to prepare his now famous "Memoirs."

During President Cleveland's administration many pension bills were brought before Congress. These bills occasioned bitter controversies and helped to foster sectional prejudices. The President had the courage to veto the bills that he considered unworthy or tending toward an extravagant or unnecessary expenditure of the public funds. But while he vetoed many pension claims, he also signed a great number. In 1884, when he entered office, there were thirty-four thousand one hundred and ninety-two pension claims allowed, and in 1888 the number had been nearly doubled, over sixty thousand names appearing on the pension list. Notwithstanding these figures, the fact that President Cleveland vetoed various pension bills that had passed Congress, caused the Grand Army men to look with disfavor upon his re-election, and their influence was one of the causes of his defeat in the campaign of 1888.

While volumes were being written about the war, many of its heroes passed away. In a single year, several Union generals died. At the beginning of the summer of 1885, the public announcement that General Grant was stricken with a fatal malady saddened the entire nation. For many months the hero of Vicksburg and Appomattox battled bravely with disease until, on the 23d of July, he sank peacefully to rest at the summer cottage on Mt. McGregor. The brave old man, after traveling around the world and being entertained by half the kings of earth, died in comparative poverty, and, what was worse, with a cloud hanging over his name. This, however, was cleared away, and the American people honored and loved him at the end as a man true and faithful, whose only crime was that he believed others to be as honest as himself and trusted too honestly and completely. That he might not leave his wife in poverty, he worked constantly upon his memoirs through the long, dreadful months when he was suffering intense agony from the cancer in his throat which eventually caused his death. His last days were cheered by the restored confidence of his countrymen. He died, in the consciousness that his book would insure a life-long competence to his family and that his name would be preserved with those of Washington and Lincoln. His funeral ceremonies were the most solemn and impressive ever witnessed in the United States, and, on April 8th, the body of the greatest American soldier was interred, with great military pomp, at Riverside Park, near New York City.

Less than three months later, General George B. McClellan died. General McClellan was the first commander of the Army of the Potomac and at one time general-in-chief of the army. He was subsequently Democratic candidate for President, and later Governor of New York.

General Winfield S. Hancock, senior Major-General of the United States Army, was the next to be called away. In 1880, he was the Democratic candidate for President, and was defeated by President Garfield.

Before the close of 1886, another Union commander died. Late in December, Major-General John A. Logan, United States Senator from Illinois, became ill at his home, Calumet Place, in Washington City. He had long been a sufferer from rheumatism, brought on by exposure in the early campaigns of the war. Few men did more than General Logan to strengthen the Union sentiment in the wavering border States. Without military training, he rose rapidly in the army and became the great volunteer general of the war. When the rebellion broke out, he resigned his seat in Congress and joined the Union army. In 1884,

after being defeated in his candidacy for Vice-President upon the Republican ticket, he resumed his duties in the United States Senate. Mrs. Logan, a woman of rare intellectual power, was always a wise counselor and a noble companion to her illustrious husband, and she will always occupy a high place in the regard of the American people.

On November 25, 1885, Thomas A. Hendricks, the Vice-President, was stricken with paralysis and died suddenly at Indianapolis. He was buried at the beautiful Crown Hill Cemetery, near that city.

A little later, two other distinguished Democratic leaders joined "the great majority." On February 12, 1886, Horatio Seymour died at his home in Utica, New York. He had reached the ripe age of seventy-six, and his long life had been one of great activity. In 1868, he was the Democratic candidate for President against General Grant. Samuel J. Tilden, the most distinguished man in Democratic politics, died at his home, called Greystone, near Yonkers, New York, August 4, 1886. He was born February 14, 1814, and, although in his seventy-third year at the time of his death, his intellectual force was unabated and his faculties unimpaired. He faithfully served his party for more than forty years and held many places of public trust. In 1876, he was nominated for President and polled a majority of the popular votes, although he failed to receive a majority from the Electoral College. After his candidacy for President, Mr. Tilden retired from public life, but he continued to be a guiding spirit in his party until his death.

In April, 1884, Cincinnati was the scene of terrible riots, which grew out of distrust of the courts. A murderer was not, according to the judgment of the people, dealt with severely enough, and the "laws' delays" had become so frequent that the people protested. Their protest took the form of a riot, the only results of which were disaster. Many were killed by the militia, the court house was burned, many thousand dollars' worth of public property was destroyed, the city kept under first mob and then martial rule for several days—and all to no end.

August and September of 1886 saw the destruction of the beautiful city of Charleston by earthquake. A series of shocks, extending over three days, devastated the city. Hundreds of people were killed, and those who escaped death were rendered homeless. Like Chicago, however, the city rapidly rose out of its ruins.

The summer of 1888 saw a return of the epidemic of yellow fever in the South. Thousands of people died, but the percentage of death was not so great among those attacked by the disease as it had formerly

been. The relief of the sufferers, both in the Charleston catastrophe and in the plague-stricken portions of the South, was prompt and cordial, and came from all parts of the United States. The generosity of the North upon these occasions did much to dissipate the bitterness between the sections.

In March, 1887, the country sustained a great loss in the death of Henry Ward Beecher, the orator, writer and philanthropist. He was taken away from a life that was still busy, notwithstanding increasing years and constantly widening fields of labor. No man did more than he to broaden popular ideas and teach liberality of thought. His work as a moral reformer and political instructor was even more prominent than as a preacher and theological thinker. Living in a critical period of American history, he threw himself into the anti-slavery conflict and took first rank on a platform that abounded with orators. No subject ever evoked more brilliant and forcible oratory than the slavery question, and no single voice did more than Mr. Beecher's to arouse the North against the encroachments of slave power. Against every compromise measure, he protested in language that was most eloquent and indignant, yet in his indignation he never lost his moral composure and self-restraint. By far the most remarkable of his political addresses were those delivered by him in Great Britain in 1863. He spoke in Manchester, Glasgow, Liverpool and London, and each address was prepared with special reference to the audience that would hear it. The greatest danger to the national cause in our civil war was from the intervention of European powers. England was especially feared. To these four addresses, more than any other one cause, America is indebted for the subsequent sympathy of the common people of England. Mr. Beecher took an active part in several presidential campaigns. At the time of President Lincoln's second candidacy, he made a series of brilliant political speeches, and he exerted a powerful influence in securing the election of President Cleveland. Born in Litchfield, Connecticut, June 24, 1813, Henry Ward Beecher's early education was of the severe New England type. He graduated from Amherst, in 1834. In 1837, he began his ministry in the small town of Lawrenceburg, Indiana. In 1839, he took charge of the Presbyterian Church at Indianapolis, and in 1847 accepted a call to the Plymouth Congregational Church, of Brooklyn, New York. It was with Plymouth Church that his name was henceforth inseparably connected, and during his ministry of forty years in its pulpit was a powerful molder of public opinion. While laboring with exceptional vigor in completing his

long-delayed "Life of Christ," which he purposed to follow with an autobiography, Mr. Beecher was suddenly stricken with apoplexy, and after lingering for a few days in an unconscious condition, passed away on the morning of March 8th. His death produced wide-spread sorrow throughout the American nation. In pulpits representing every school of thought, sermons on his career and character were preached, and in all sorts of organizations, religious and secular, resolutions to his memory were passed.

One of the most noted pieces of legislation during President Cleveland's administration was the Inter-State Commerce Law. The bill was introduced before the Forty-ninth Congress and attracted much attention, as it was intended to benefit the public by reducing railway fares and freight charges. After a long fight in Congress, during which time the bill was several times altered, it finally became a law. The bill provided for uniform freight and passenger rates upon all railroads throughout the United States.

President Cleveland had the satisfaction of knowing that four great States were admitted to the Union immediately preceding the close of his administration. This was an unusual number to be added under one President. These States were North and South Dakota, Montana and Washington. Dakota was entitled to admission some time before, but unworthy political motives prevented it from claiming its right place as a State.

President Cleveland's administration was notable from a social point of view. The inauguration of a Democratic President for the first time in a quarter of a century naturally created great enthusiasm. The ceremonies were impressive, and the event was celebrated with much pomp, although the man who assumed the Chief Magistrate's chair was one of the most unostentatious of men.

President Cleveland being unmarried, his youngest sister, Miss Rose Elizabeth Cleveland, became the hostess of the White House. A woman of progressive ideas, intellectual and thoughtful, she immediately made a pleasant impression upon the public. When her father died, she was a child eleven years old, and the care of her education devolved upon her mother. She was naturally studious, and early gave evidence of a strong and original mind. After graduating from a prominent seminary she returned to it as a teacher. Later, she became principal of the Collegiate Institute, at Lafayette, Indiana. Her health becoming impaired, she withdrew from active school work and became

a lecturer upon historical subjects in several large seminaries. She made her home at Holland Patent, New York, and at the death of her mother she continued to live at the old home until she was summoned away from her books to do the honors of the White House, where she presided with tact and dignity until the marriage of her brother. Miss Cleveland had become known as a writer of essays and literary criticisms, and while residing at the White House she found time to publish a book which met with great success.

In May, 1886, the approaching marriage of the President was announced, and the prospect of a wedding at the White House piqued the public interest. The bride-elect, Miss Frances Folsom, had been in Europe for some time and she was almost unknown in Washington, where she was soon to be the center of official social life. She was born in Buffalo, New York, and was the only daughter of Oscar Folsom, a prominent lawyer of that city. In 1870, Mr. Folsom became a partner of Mr. Cleveland in the practice of law, and a strong friendship sprang up between the two lawyers. Death soon severed this friendship, however, for in July, 1875, Mr. Folsom was thrown from a carriage and killed. Mrs. Folsom immediately gave up her home in Buffalo and removed to Medina, where she devoted herself to the education of her daughter, who was later sent to Wells College, Aurora. At school and college, the future wife of the highest official in the land was distinguished for her studious habits and bright mind, and she graduated from Wells College with high honors. Mr. Cleveland never lost sight of his partner's wife and daughter, and, during her school days, the young girl received many tokens of his friendly regard.

On the evening of June 2, 1886, President Cleveland and Miss Frances Folsom were married. The ceremony was performed in the Blue Room of the White House, the Reverend Byron Sunderland, D.D., officiating, assisted by the Reverend William Cleveland. As the marriage ceremony was performed, a salute of cannon was fired from the navy yard, and all the bells of the city churches rang greetings. On June 15th, the President and Mrs. Cleveland held an official reception, and the winsome manners of the new lady of the White House won every heart. Three days later another reception was held at which not less than ten thousand people crowded to meet Mrs. Cleveland, who wore her bridal gown and had the Blue Room decorated with flowers, just as it had been on the evening of the wedding.

Although only twenty-two years old and but a short time out of school when she became the first lady of the land, Mrs. Cleveland main-

tained the dignity of her exalted position with such tact and discretion that no word of criticism was ever passed upon her. Beautiful, gentle and kind, she endeared herself to the people. Highly accomplished, unaffected in manner and fascinating in address, she was everywhere loved and honored. In 1887, the President and Mrs. Cleveland made a tour through the country, going as far north as St. Paul, Minnesota, and as far south as Montgomery, Alabama. They were welcomed everywhere with great enthusiasm, the cities vying with one another in the preparations for their entertainment.

In the National Democratic Convention of 1888, President Cleveland was unanimously renominated, but he was defeated in the election by the Republican candidate, General Benjamin F. Harrison, of Indiana. The reasons for Republican success have been studied with much curiosity, and statesmen have had cause to remember the prophecy of General John A. Logan. He said that the election of 1888 would result in Republican triumph, for the reason that the children born after the close of the War of Secession would become of age and that they would be Republicans by heredity.

After the inauguration of President Harrison, Mr. Cleveland resumed the practice of law, associating himself with a prominent firm in New York City. As President of the United States, he left an honorable record. He was an indefatigable worker, spending many hours every day at his desk. His administration was noted for the business-like methods that he employed. An ardent advocate of tariff reform, he devoted much space in his annual messages to the subject.

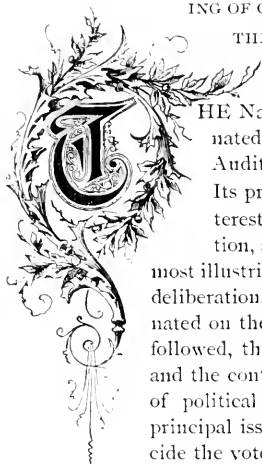
FOR FURTHER READING:

- FICTION**—E. Eggleston's "The Hoosier Schoolmaster."
 E. Eggleston's "The Circuit Rider."
 E. Eggleston's "Roxy."
 F. Winthrop's "John Brent."
 J. W. DeForrest's "Overland."
 Rattlehead's "Arkansas Doctor."
 Bret Harte's "Luck of Roaring Camp."
 Bayard Taylor's "Hannah Thurston."
 Mrs. H. W. Bucher's "From Dawn to Daylight."
 Huntington's "Alban."
 F. W. Shelton's "The Rector of St. Bardolph's."
 L. M. Childs' "A Romance of the Republic."
 Mark Twain's "The Celebrated Jumping Frog of Calaveras County."
 C. E. Whitehead's "Wild Sports in the South."
- POETRY**—Lowell's Poems.
 Bayard Taylor's Poems.
 Bret Harte's Poems.

CHAPTER CVI.

President Harrison's Inauguration.

THE MEMBERS OF THE CABINET AND THE FOREIGN MINISTERS—THE
CELEBRATION OF THE CENTENNIAL ANNIVERSARY OF
WASHINGTON'S INAUGURATION—THE OPEN-
ING OF OKLAHOMA TERRITORY—
THE SAMOAN DISASTER.



THE National Republican Convention, which nominated President Harrison, met in the great Auditorium building at Chicago, June 19, 1888. Its proceedings were watched with wide-spread interest, as there were many candidates for nomination, and the delegates representing them were the most illustrious men of the nation. After several days of deliberation, Benjamin Harrison was unanimously nominated on the eighth ballot. During the campaign which followed, there was less party bitterness than formerly, and the contest was not so personal as in previous times of political excitement. The tariff question was the principal issue. Protection and free trade were to decide the vote of the people. During his administration, President Cleveland had been outspoken in his free-trade principles, and the Democratic platform advocated a reduction of the tariff, while the Republicans clung to their belief in the efficiency of protection. Among the Republicans there were many veterans who had voted for Benjamin Harrison's grandfather. "Tippecanoe" clubs were formed and the log cabin appeared upon campaign banners. In the political processions many aged men marched and shouted for the descendant of their former candidate.

On March 4, 1889, President Harrison and Vice-President Morton were given the oath of office. The city of Washington was gayly decorated, and thousands of people assembled to witness the inauguration ceremonies. President Harrison delivered his inaugural address from

the portico of the Capitol, where Chief Justice Fuller had administered the oath of office. The day was unfortunately rainy and unpleasant; but the crowd, which was one of the largest ever gathered in Washington, listened with respectful attention. The inaugural address of President Harrison was a modest, thoughtful, well-written and dignified document. It was characterized by a patriotic sentiment of Unionism. It was of moderate length, and afforded ample opportunity to touch upon the questions of conspicuous national importance. The introduction of the message was suggested naturally by the political sentiments associated with the centennial of the nation's existence, for it was just one hundred years after the framing of the Constitution of the United States. The protective system was touched upon. President Harrison indorsed protection, and looked hopefully to its continuance. In the course of the address, the subject of monopolies was mentioned. President Harrison uttered a warning against corporations violating the rights of the people. He suggested an amendment to the naturalization laws—an amendment that would insure a closer scrutiny of the characters of those who come here, and which would exclude those who are likely to become a burden upon public charity. He outlined a firm and dignified policy.

A great ball, at which twelve thousand people were present, was given in the immense Pension building on the evening of the inauguration day. The preparations for the ball were elaborate, and the presidential party met with an enthusiastic welcome.

Benjamin Harrison, the twenty-third President of the United States, was born at North Bend, Hamilton county, Ohio, August 20, 1833. He studied at home until 1841, when he was sent to Farmer's College, near Cincinnati. His boyhood was not unlike that of other boys reared upon a farm, and was quite uneventful. At fifteen, he entered Miami University, at Oxford, Ohio, and was graduated from that institution, three years later. While at college, he became engaged to Miss Caroline W. Scott, a daughter of Dr. John Scott, who was principal of an academy for young ladies. After leaving college, he immediately studied law, and before he had quite finished his legal course he was married, on the 25th of October, 1853. In March, 1854, he settled in Indianapolis, and there began a brave struggle with the world. Mr. Harrison was not burdened with riches, and he and his young wife began life in the simplest manner. At first, business was slow in coming, and when appointed crier of the Federal Court, the young lawyer gladly accepted the humble office with its slight remuneration of two dollars

and a half a day. In 1860, he was a candidate before the Republican convention for Reporter of the Supreme Court of the State, and obtained the office to which he was afterward repeatedly re-elected.

When the rumors of civil war reached him, Mr. Harrison was anxious to be one of the first volunteers. Remembering his wife and young children, he hesitated. President Lincoln having issued a proclamation calling for troops, the Governor of Indiana found difficulty in filling the quota due from his State. The grandson of General William Henry Harrison could hesitate no longer. He immediately raised a regiment. While it was drilling, he was commissioned second lieutenant. When the regiment joined the army, its second lieutenant became the colonel of the Seventieth Regiment of Indiana Volunteers. Colonel Harrison proved to be a brave soldier, and when he was discharged from the army in June, 1865, he had risen to the rank of brigadier-general. He was the hero of Peach Tree Creek, and was brevetted for his gallant acts upon the field.

In 1876 many influential Republicans in the State insisted that General Harrison should allow his name to be placed on the ticket for Governor. He declined the honor, but was nevertheless nominated. The result of the election was unfavorable to him, although he ran ahead of his ticket and was defeated by a small majority. Two years later he was called upon to preside over the State Convention, and in 1880 he was chairman of the Indiana delegation at the National Convention. In 1884, he again represented his State at the National Convention which met in Chicago.

He was elected to the United States Senate in 1880, and served until 1886, when he resumed the practice of law in Indianapolis. As a lawyer, General Harrison had many natural gifts. He was quick of apprehension and broad of judgment. He was naturally analytical and logical, a patient student and a deep thinker. In private life, he was much esteemed by all who knew him. Modest and unassuming in manner, he still showed marked individuality and strong character. As a genial friend, a good citizen and a brilliant lawyer, he was highly honored in his native State, and his record in the United States Senate gave him a national reputation for unswerving loyalty to the interests of the people whom he represented.

Levi P. Morton, the Vice-President, was born at Sherman, Vermont, May 10, 1824. When very young he entered mercantile life, and soon became a partner in the Boston firm with which he was engaged. He removed to New York, four years later, continuing as

a merchant until 1863, when he founded the banking house of Morton, Bliss & Co. At the same time he established a branch in London under the firm name of Morton, Rose & Co., and this firm acted as the financial agents of the United States Government from 1873 to 1884. In 1878, Mr. Morton was appointed Honorary Commissioner to the Paris Exposition, and the same year was elected to Congress, where he served for two terms. President Garfield tendered him the office of Secretary of the Navy, which he declined, preferring to accept the appointment of Minister to France. After the expiration of his term as foreign minister, Mr. Morton held no public office until elected Vice-President of the United States.

On March 5th, the day after the inauguration, President Harrison sent the names of his Cabinet to the Senate for confirmation. They were: For Secretary of State, James G. Blaine, of Maine; Secretary of the Treasury, William Windom, of Minnesota; Secretary of War, Redfield Proctor, of Vermont; Secretary of the Navy, Benjamin F. Tracy, of New York; Secretary of the Interior, John W. Noble, of Missouri; Secretary of Agriculture, Jeremiah Rusk, of Wisconsin; Postmaster-General, John Wanamaker, of Pennsylvania; Attorney-General, William Henry Harrison Miller, of Indiana.

The nominees were promptly confirmed by the Senate, as there could be no objection to any of them on the ground of incompetency or personal unfitness. The new Cabinet was regarded by the country most favorably. While it contained several men who had no record in public life, it had no member who had not had large experience of either a political or business nature.

James Gillespie Blaine, Secretary of State, was born January 31, 1830, in Washington County, Pennsylvania. In 1847 he graduated at Washington College. He taught school for two years at Georgetown, Kentucky, in the meantime studying law. He was admitted to the bar in Pennsylvania, but never practiced. In 1853 he located in Maine, and assumed the editorship and control of the *Kennebec Journal*. Upon the organization of the Republican party, he took an active part in politics, and soon became the acknowledged leader of the Republican party in his State. In 1858, he was elected to the legislature, where he served four years, the last two as Speaker of the House. In 1862, he was elected to Congress, and at once assumed the lead in national politics. In 1869, he was chosen Speaker of the House, which office he held until the Democrats assumed control of Congress in 1876. In the same year, he was one of the principal candidates for the presidential nomination, but

was beaten, his opponents uniting on Governor Hayes, of Ohio. In July, 1876, he was appointed Senator from Maine by the Governor of the State. In 1880, he was again a prominent candidate for the presidential nomination, but General Garfield was finally selected as a compromise candidate. In 1884, he was nominated for the presidency, but was defeated by President Cleveland. No man in the country ever had more loyal political adherents than James G. Blaine, and in the convention of 1888 his name was again mentioned for nomination. Several delegations at first refused to consider any other name but his. Mr. Blaine was traveling in Europe at the time, and when he became aware of the indecision of the convention he had his name withdrawn, and President Harrison was nominated.

William Windom, Secretary of the Treasury, was born in Ohio, in 1827. He practiced law for several years in his native State, and in 1855 he removed to Minnesota. During the ten years from 1858 to 1868, he was a member of the House of Representatives at Washington. He was appointed United States Senator to fill a vacancy in 1870, and the following year was elected for a full term. In 1876, he was re-elected, and was Senator when President Garfield appointed him Secretary of the Treasury in 1881. He served but a short time, when President Garfield was killed. In 1883, he was a candidate for re-election to the Senate, but was defeated.

Redfield Proctor, of Vermont, Secretary of War, was born in 1831. In early life he began the study of law, but closed his books to go to the war. His first service was as quartermaster of the Third Regiment of Vermont. He subsequently was made major of the Fifth Vermont, and finally colonel of the Fifteenth. His health became impaired, and after serving at Gettysburg, where his regiment acted as train guard, he returned home and engaged in farming. He turned his attention to politics in a small way, serving several times in the State Legislature. In 1878, he was nominated for Governor and elected. From the time of his retirement from that office, he maintained an active interest in political affairs, and has been regarded as one of the party leaders of the State.

John W. Noble, Secretary of the Interior, was born at Lancaster, Ohio, in 1830. His father, John Noble, was a colonel of the United States army in the War of 1812. Secretary Noble was sent to college at Oxford, Ohio, and there formed the acquaintance of President Harrison, who was a student at the same time. From Oxford he was sent to Yale, where he graduated with high honors; he afterwards studied

law and practiced for two years. In 1856, he removed to St. Louis. He opened a law office there, but the following year removed to Keokuk, Iowa, where he practiced law until the war broke out. He enlisted in the Third Iowa Cavalry, and was advanced step by step to the rank of major. He then went on staff duty, but in a short time returned to his regiment in the field. He remained in active duty until the close of the war. After the war, Major Noble opened a law office in St. Louis. Soon after beginning the practice of law, he was appointed United States District Attorney for the Eastern District of Missouri. In 1870 he resigned that office and practiced law in St. Louis until his appointment as Secretary of the Interior.

Benjamin Franklin Tracy, Secretary of the Navy, was born in Tioga county, New York. His early life was passed on a farm. He studied law, and in 1851 was admitted to the bar. Three years later he became District Attorney of Tioga county. He was afterwards elected to the New York Assembly. In 1862, Governor Morgan requested Mr. Tracy to raise a regiment for the counties of Broome, Tompkins and Tioga. He raised two regiments and was given command of one. When he resigned at the close of the war, he had attained the rank of brigadier-general. In 1866, he received the appointment of United States District Attorney for the Eastern District of New York, and held the position until 1873, when he resigned.

John Wanamaker, the Postmaster-General, was born in Philadelphia, July 11, 1837. His father was of German parentage and his mother a descendant of the Huguenots. His parents were poor, and at the age of fourteen he went to work in a clothing store, where he earned a dollar and a half a week. In five years he was head salesman of the house. In 1861, he went into partnership with his brother-in-law, Nathan Brown, and soon built up an enormous business. He has always been prominent in religious affairs. His history is commercial, not political. He took no active part in politics previous to the recent campaign. He was a member of the Centennial Commission, and was chiefly instrumental in raising the first million dollars for the project. He was repeatedly solicited to run for Congress and Mayor of Philadelphia, but always refused.

William Henry Harrison Miller, the Attorney-General, was a former law partner of President Harrison. He was born in Oneida county, New York. His father was a Whig, and an ardent admirer of President Harrison's grandfather. After being graduated from Hamilton College, New York, Mr. Miller studied law under the instruction of

Judge Waite, of Toledo, Ohio, afterwards Chief Justice of the Supreme Court. He began the practice of law in Fort Wayne, Indiana, where he remained eight years. In 1874 he received an offer of partnership with General Harrison, and accepted it.

Jeremiah M. Rusk, Secretary of Agriculture, was born in Morgan county, Ohio, in 1830. He spent the early years of his youth in the country, and in 1852 settled on a farm in Wisconsin. In 1861, he was elected to the State Legislature. In 1862 he entered the army. He had been prominent in securing the enlistment of troops, and as a consequence was elected major of the Twenty-fifth Wisconsin Regiment. He served during the Indian outbreak in Minnesota, and also during the siege and capture of Vicksburg. He was with General Sherman on the famous march to the sea, being brevetted brigadier-general for gallantry at the battle of Talkehatchie. In 1865 he was elected to the office of Bank Comptroller, and held that position until the office was abolished by an amendment to the constitution. He was elected to Congress in 1870, 1872 and 1874. At the close of his last term, he retired to his farm until 1888, when he was elected Governor of the State of Wisconsin. The Department of Agriculture was formerly under the supervision of the Secretary of the Interior, and Jeremiah Rusk was the first Secretary appointed to the new portfolio.

The members of the Cabinet who had been most conspicuous in the public offices they had held were Secretaries Blaine, Windom and Rusk.

In his appointment of United States representatives to foreign countries, President Harrison showed great sagacity. The sons of two former presidents were honored.

On March 27th, President Harrison sent to the Senate the name of Robert T. Lincoln, of Illinois, son of President Abraham Lincoln, to be Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States to Great Britain, and the appointment was immediately confirmed. Robert Lincoln was born in Springfield, August 1, 1843. He was the eldest son of President Lincoln. About a year after his birth, his parents moved to Springfield, which continued to be their home until Abraham Lincoln went to Washington as President. Robert Lincoln received his elementary education at the public schools and State University. He was prepared for an extended college course in Phillips Exeter Academy, and was graduated at Harvard in 1864. He then entered the Harvard Law School, and after a short time applied for admission to the army, and was regularly commissioned as a captain.

He served with honor through several engagements, and witnessed Lee's surrender at Appomattox. At the close of the war he took up the study of law, was admitted to the Chicago bar, and soon became very successful in the practice of his profession. In 1881, President Garfield chose him to be his Secretary of War. Sixteen years before Robert Lincoln had reached Washington from the battle field in time to stand by the death-bed of his father, assassinated while President, and he had the sad experience of being in Washington at the time of the shooting of President Garfield, a few months after his inauguration. Upon the accession of Vice-President Arthur to the presidential chair, Mr. Lincoln was the only member of the former Cabinet requested to retain his portfolio. He remained Secretary of War until the close of the administration.

Frederick D. Grant was sent as Minister to Austria-Hungary. He was the oldest son of General Grant, and was born in 1850. He accompanied his father during the war, and was in five battles before he was thirteen years old. He entered the National Military Academy at West Point in 1867, and was graduated from that institution in 1871. He served as lieutenant-colonel upon General Sheridan's staff. In 1876, Colonel Grant resigned from the army. He accompanied his father upon his trip around the world and assisted in the preparation of the "Memoirs."

Whitelaw Reid, of New York, was appointed Minister to France. He was born in Xenia, Ohio, in 1837. When nineteen years old he was graduated from Miami University. He taught school a year, and in 1857, when only twenty years old, bought the *Xenia News*. Two years later he was a correspondent at Columbus for several papers, and became famous as a war correspondent for the *Cincinnati Gazette* in 1861 and 1862, for which paper he wrote over the signature of "Agate." Afterward he became associate editor of the *Gazette*, then Librarian of the House of Representatives, and in 1865 took charge of the *New York Tribune* Bureau in Washington. In 1870, Mr. Reid became attached to the *New York Tribune*, and when Horace Greeley was nominated for the presidency he became managing editor. He remained in that position until the time of his appointment. He has edited several works, "After the War," "The Southern Tour" and "Ohio in the War."

Allen Thorndike Rice, of New York, was sent as Minister to St. Petersburg. Though only thirty-six years old at the time, he had a wide reputation as a writer and editor. He was born in Boston. At

the age of nine, he was taken abroad, and for five years lived in Europe. In 1867 he returned to the United States and remained until 1871, when he went to England and was graduated at Oxford in 1875. On his return to this country he entered the Columbia Law School. In 1876 he bought the *North American Review* and became its editor. He is noted as having organized, in 1879, and subsequently directed, an expedition which was despatched under the joint auspices of the United States and France to systematically investigate the remains of ancient civilization in Central America and New Mexico. In 1884 he bought a controlling interest in the *Le Matin*, one of the leading papers of Paris, which he successfully managed. He always took an active interest in politics, and in 1886 received the Republican nomination for Congress, but was defeated. He edited reminiscences of Abraham Lincoln and contributed valuable material to literature concerning the ancient cities of the New World.

John A. Enander, of Illinois, was appointed Minister and Councilor-General of the United States to Denmark. He was born in Sweden, and was the son of a farmer. In 1869, he came to America, entering the College of Augustana. He soon became editor of a Swedish newspaper printed in Chicago, and afterwards assumed the charge of several Scandinavian periodicals. He became an American in all the word implies, a broad and liberal-minded citizen, exercising a good influence upon all his countrymen in the United States.

Albert G. Porter was made Minister to Italy. He was born in Lawrenceville, Indiana. During the war he served in Congress for three terms. He declined re-election, and devoted himself to the practice of law in Indianapolis. In 1880 he was nominated for Governor of Indiana, and carried the State by a large majority. Both President Garfield and Arthur offered him places in their Cabinets, but he preferred to remain in the State office to which he had been elected.

Thomas W. Palmer, of Michigan, was sent as Minister to Spain. He was born in Detroit, and was educated at the University of Michigan. He was elected to the United States Senate and served with great credit.

John D. Washburn, of Massachusetts, was appointed to represent the United States in Switzerland. He was prominent in Massachusetts politics, and served in both houses of the State Legislature.

John F. Swift, of California, was made Minister to Japan. As a learned man and successful author, he was favorably known. Having been a great traveler, he was well versed in diplomatic matters. In

1886 he was the Republican candidate for Governor of California. He framed the famous Anti-Chinese Bill, which, when presented to the Senate, produced a protracted discussion.

One of the first events of President Harrison's Administration was the opening of the Oklahoma Territory to settlers. The Oklahoma Territory was part of the great Indian reservation in the Indian Territory. The lands could only be opened by the acceptance and consent of the Indians, and this acceptance and consent had to be accompanied by satisfactory proof that it had been obtained freely and in the manner and form required by the twelfth article of the treaty of 1876.

President Harrison having approved the deed by which the Indians ceded to the United States all their right and title to the land held by them in the Oklahoma tract, there was immediately a great stampede of settlers toward the new Territory. The cession of land made by the Creek and Seminole Indians embraced several million acres, between the Indian river on the south and the Cherokee outlet on the north. One hundred thousand dollars was appropriated by the Government towards surveying this land to be opened for settlement. On March 23d, the President issued a proclamation declaring the land open to settlers at noon on the 22d of April. During the month following this proclamation there was a great rush westward, and the excitement was intense.

For ten years there had been an effort on the part of a certain number of settlers to have the territory opened. In 1879, one Captain Payne attempted to take possession of some land on the reservation. He met with strong opposition from the Government. Had Payne's party been allowed to peaceably settle on the lands which he believed to be public property, it is doubtful whether there would have been any concerted movement toward Oklahoma. The opposition awakened widespread interest in the country, and the history of the "Oklahoma boomers" lent a sort of fascinating glamour to the country. Captain Payne, the head of the original party, had been an army scout and guide. He made frequent excursions in the Indian country through the years immediately following the close of the war, and so became thoroughly acquainted with it. Recognizing this as public land under the treaty of 1866, he, in 1879, organized a small colony for the purpose of effecting a settlement. In December, 1880, the colonists were followed by United States troops. Payne was arrested and the colonies were disbanded. Payne was tried and put under bonds not to enter the territory; but he was not discouraged. He and his colonists, the "Okla-

homa boomers," subsequently made four well-organized expeditions into the territory, laid out towns, located farms, built houses and plowed fields. Each time Payne was turned out by the military and all his improvements destroyed. His last expedition was made in 1884, in which year he died. In the fall of 1884, the United States Court at Topeka had decided that the lands were public property, and at the time of his death Payne had another party organized. A determined pioneer became the leader, and started with four hundred and fifty men, but they were expelled. After this, more conservative settlers petitioned Congress, and through their intercessions the matter was formally considered. The Government was just in the position that it took in protecting the rights of the Indians, for neither the boomers nor the horde of speculators, who defied military rule, had any authority for pressing their claims.

The Oklahoma tract opened for settlement was but a very small part of what is known as the Oklahoma region. It contains about as much territory as Rhode Island and Delaware combined, and comprises about thirteen thousand quarter sections of homestead claims.

On the evening before the day set for the entrance into the Oklahoma Territory, it is estimated that at least fifty thousand people were anxiously waiting on the borders of the long-coveted region. According to law, the land could be pre-empted by the first to stake claims, and there was no precedence given to the original settlers who had fought for permission to occupy the country. On the long looked for 22d of April the scenes in the Oklahoma country rivaled anything in the previous history of the United States. The settlers entered in a frenzy of excitement. Wagons and all other incumbrances were abandoned, and the pioneers made all possible haste to procure claims. In a single day every available piece of farming land was pre-empted, and thousands of the settlers were unable to obtain any property. Within twenty-four hours several towns sprang up, city officers were elected, and the territory that had been a wilderness on the evening of April 21st was a well-populated country before another nightfall. Much suffering was experienced by the settlers, many of whom had spent all their money in reaching the much talked of country. Food and water failed, and hundreds of disappointed pioneers were glad to return to their former homes.

On March 15 and 16, 1889, the United States lost three men-of-war in a hurricane. The vessels were lying in the harbor of Apia, in Samoan waters. The *Iandalia* and *Trenton* were totally destroyed and

the *Nipsic* was driven ashore in a badly-damaged condition. A number of lives were lost.

The celebration of the centennial anniversary of George Washington's inauguration is one of the most important events in the recent history of the United States. The day (April 30, 1889) was made a legal holiday and was enthusiastically observed throughout the land. In every city commemorative exercises were held. Patriotic addresses were delivered in the churches and schools, and men, women and children took equal interest in the great demonstration. The event which was thus recalled by a united and rejoicing people was of double importance. While the memory of the man, George Washington, was thus honored, the installation of the first President as the head of a new Government was but the outward sign of that more "perfect Union" which the Constitution had been framed to establish. The day was really the one hundredth birthday of a great and prosperous nation. The annals of the past were full of wonderful occurrences, and the people who stood on the dividing line between the first and second centuries of constitutional government had cause for deepest thankfulness. Behind them lay many wars and dangers out of which the nation had issued in peace and safety. Before them stretched what seemed an age of rapid development and undisturbed prosperity.

Although the centennial anniversary of Washington's inauguration was a day universally celebrated East, West, North and South, the principal demonstrations took place in New York City, which was the seat of the Government in 1789. In arranging the ceremonies, in which the Government officials took part, it was the desire to recall as many incidents and imitate as many festivities of the past as was possible under the altered condition of the times. On the night of April 28, 1889, President Harrison and a large party left Washington for New York City, traveling the same route as that traversed by Washington a century before. When Washington made his memorable journey he started on April 16, driving in his coach, which was an imposing if not a rapid vehicle. His progress was delayed by repeated ovations at every point along the line.

At Philadelphia, twenty thousand people—an immense crowd for the time—greeted him, and a gorgeous banquet was given in his honor at the City Tavern. When he reached the bridge at Trenton, he passed under a triumphal arch, and young girls, dressed in white and crowned with garlands, strewed his way with flowers. President Harrison and party did not stop until Elizabeth, New Jersey, was reached. It was at

this little city that Washington was entertained by Elias Boudinot, a member of the Continental Congress. The Governor of the State received President Harrison, and, after a formal "breakfast," a picturesque procession was reviewed. One of the unique features of the procession was a company of men, the descendants of the farmers who had met Washington at Wheatsheaf. They were dressed in Continental costume and carried old-time farming implements. On the road between Elizabeth and Elizabethport there was a large arch, upon which were stationed young girls dressed to represent the States of the Union. After the fashion of the Trenton women in the time of Washington, they showered flowers upon the passing President. At Elizabethport, President Harrison was taken aboard a fine ship called the *Dispatch*. From Elizabethport, Washington had embarked in a splendid red-canopied barge, specially built for the purpose; and, surrounded by small boats full of men and women singing choruses of welcome, he had slowly finished his journey to New York City. The spectacle that met the eye of President Harrison as the *Dispatch* steamed toward New York Bay was one that surpassed anything that was ever imagined by men of a past generation. Four hundred vessels were drawn up in line. Each was bright with bunting, the decorations being elaborate and effective. The naval division formed a single column. The *Chicago* carried the flag of the Secretary of the Navy, and the admiral's flag was borne by the *Boston*. The other ships belonging to the navy were the *Atlanta*, *Yorktown*, *Juniata*, *Essex*, *Brooklyn*, *Jamestown* and the old *Kearsarge*. The revenue and yacht divisions formed a part of the naval parade that was exceedingly brilliant. When the *Dispatch* reached the *Chicago*, the entire fleet of steamers blew whistles and the sound was deafening. The booming of cannon and music from a hundred bands added to the noise, while on land and shore thousands of people cheered the approaching President.

As the *Dispatch* anchored opposite Wall street ferry, a barge, manned by a crew belonging to the same society as the one which had rowed Washington ashore, met President Harrison. The old banner of the Marine Society, which had been carried before Washington, floated from the boat, and its faded and yellow silk was a silent witness to the flight of time. As the President landed on the wharf, the chimes of old Trinity Church played the "Doxology."

New York City was magnificently decorated for the gala days of the celebration. The streets were lined and festooned with the national colors, and arches were erected across the principal streets. After the

great naval parade, the President held a public reception, at the beginning of which he received the greetings of several hundred school children, who carried baskets of flowers and scattered them in the pathway of the presidential party. In the evening, a grand centennial ball was given at the Metropolitan Opera House. Its splendor was unparalleled by any similar entertainment that had ever taken place in the United States. The great opera house was transformed into a blooming garden. Roses and orchids were used by the thousands, and rare flowers were woven into many odd designs. More than six thousand people were present at this ball.

On the morning of the 30th of April, the great day of the celebration, President Harrison attended services at St. Paul's Church, in Broadway. He sat in the same pew that Washington had occupied on the morning of his inauguration. In the congregation, on this occasion, there was a notable gathering of the most distinguished men of the nation, and the day added historic interest to the church already hallowed by many sacred memories of the past. From St. Paul's Church, the President was escorted to the Sub-Treasury building, where the literary exercises of the day were held. From a platform prepared for the speakers, the addresses were made. The exercises of the day opened with the appropriate words:

"Fellow-citizens: One hundred years ago, on this spot, George Washington, as first President of the United States, took his oath of office upon the Holy Bible. That sacred volume is here to-day, silently attesting the basis upon which our nation was constructed and the dependence of our people upon Almighty God. In the words, then, of one of the founders of the Government, with hearts overflowing with gratitude to our Sovereign Benefactor for granting to us existence, for continuing it to the present period, and for accumulating on us blessings spiritual and temporal through life, may we with fervor beseech Him so to continue them as best to promote His glory and our welfare."

A poem, written for the occasion by John G. Whittier, the venerable poet, was one of the important features of the literary programme. The oration of the day was delivered by Mr. Chauncey M. Depew, and was an eloquent effort.

After the literary exercises, there was a military parade that was one of the most memorable pageants of recent times. It was many miles in length, and was more than six hours in passing the reviewing stand.

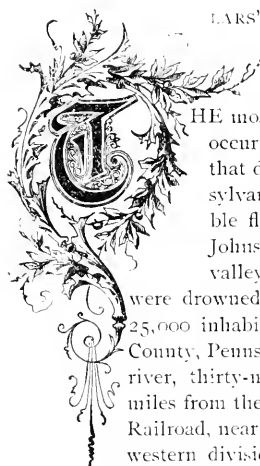
The centennial celebration in New York City closed with a banquet at the Metropolitan Opera House. The scene was scarcely less brilliant

than on the preceding night of the ball. Eight hundred guests were present. The speakers of the evening were President Harrison, ex-President Cleveland, ex-President Hayes, Chief Justice Fuller, General Sherman, James Russell Lowell, Charles W. Eliot, president of Harvard College, and Fitzhugh Lee, Governor of Virginia.

CHAPTER CVII.

The Great Calamity.

ERUPTING OF A RESERVOIR IN THE CONEMAUGH VALLEY, PENNSYLVANIA—APPALLING RUSH OF WATER DOWN THE VALLEY—
DESTRUCTION OF JOHNSTOWN—THOUSANDS OF
LIVES LOST AND MILLIONS OF DOLLARS' WORTH OF PROPERTY
DESTROYED.



THE most awful calamity of the Nineteenth Century occurred on the afternoon of May 31, 1889. On that date, the city of Johnstown, in Western Pennsylvania, was wiped out of existence by an irresistible flood, and thousands of people, not only in Johnstown, but in other towns in the Conemaugh valley, in which the ill-fated city was located, were drowned. Johnstown was a post borough of about 25,000 inhabitants, and was the largest town in Cambria County, Pennsylvania. It was situated on the Conemaugh river, thirty-nine miles southwest of Altoona, and thirty miles from the famous horseshoe curve of the Pennsylvania Railroad, near Cresson. It was the eastern terminus of the western division of the Pennsylvania Canal, and a large station on the Pennsylvania Railroad. It was picturesquely situated among a ridge of mountains rich in bituminous coal, limestone and fire clay, and was the seat of the Cambria iron works, which employed 7,000 men in the manufacture of iron and steel rails. It had a national and several savings banks, and a number of flour, planing and rolling mills and tanneries. It supported two daily and four weekly newspapers, sixteen churches, a convent and an academy.

The Conemaugh river, on which Johnstown was located, rises in Cambria County, and runs through a mountainous country, forming the boundary between Indiana and Westmoreland Counties. It unites with the Loyal Harra Creek, at Saltsburg, Indiana County, and forms

the Kiskiminitas river, which runs northwestward, forming the boundary between Armstrong and Westmoreland Counties. The Kiskiminitas enters the Alleghany river at Freeport. The towns along the Conemaugh, from Johnstown down, were Cambria, Sheridan, Cooperstown, Sang Hollow, Conemaugh, Mineral Point, Nineveh, New Florence, Lacotte, Lockport, Bolivar, Coke Valley, Snyder, Tunnelton, Kelly's, White, and Saltsburg. Most of these were destroyed in the great catastrophe.

The body of water that did the immense damage at Johnstown covered 700 acres. It was two and a half miles long and about three-fourths of a mile wide. It was an artificial lake, and lay between two high hills, ten miles back of Johnstown. It was the old canal reservoir, long since abandoned, and was purchased from the Pennsylvania Railroad, in 1879, by the South Fork Hunting and Fishing Club. The reservoir had been constructed by building a high retaining wall at the lower end of the basin, and allowing the water from a number of small streams to flow into the depression. The space between the hills soon filled up, and the retaining wall, which was on the Johnstown side, served as a dam. This South Fork Dam, as it was called, had stood for so many years that people were confident that it was all right, and no fears were entertained as to its safety. This sense of security was to be rudely dispelled, and in a most tragic manner.

At about 4 o'clock on the afternoon of Friday, May 31, 1889, the operator at South Fork telegraphed to Johnstown that the great South Fork dam was about to burst. Then all telegraphic communication ceased, as the wires went down immediately afterward. An hour later there came a rush of water into Johnstown that was appalling. It poured down Conemaugh creek in a great wall twenty-five feet high, sweeping everything before it. The immense works of the Cambria Iron Company, employing 7,000 men, the second largest works in the country, was buried out of sight, with the exception of the roofs and chimney tops, and the roofs and chimneys soon began to crumble and disappear under the battering of the flood. Half the town seemed to be lifted from its foundations and swept away at once. The wreckage covered the water thicker than the houses had stood before. It was no longer a flood of water; it was a town afloat.

Many had taken warning and fled to the higher grounds, but thousands of men, women and children were swept away, their heartrending cries rising above the crash of the smashing houses. The mass of wreck, water, dead bodies and drowning people rushed down into the mouth of

the gorge at the foot of the valley in which Johnstown stood, where the hills came together like a pair of giant arms and choked the stream. The stone railroad bridge which spanned the stream at that point stood firm as the hills themselves. The result was an awful jam. The wreck caught on the masonry. It thickened into a dam. It clung to the bridge in the hollow of the hill. It gathered strength with every piece of wreck, and everything that crushed into it was bound together into a tangled wall, closing up half the outlet, around which the mountain waters hurled their flood. The water burst even the flood limits which it had taken for its new banks, and poured a new river into a new channel through the heart of the lower part of the city. The drift piled up against the stone bridge and added its wreck to the heap, until it formed a tangled mass from thirty to sixty feet thick, rising high above the water and stretching back three-fourths of a mile along the curve of the hill. This, later in the night, took fire, but it probably added no pang to the hundreds of unfortunate people who were caught in it. The water had left nothing for the fire to do. It could only destroy the bodies; the victims' sufferings were over.

The first news of the terrible calamity to reach the outside world came from Sang Hollow, a little town in the Conemaugh valley, down the stream from Johnstown. The river rushing past Sang Hollow was soon black with drift, and gave the first tidings of what had happened. Houses, fragments of bridges, logs, dead bodies and many wrecks of all kinds were heaving and darting together on the troubled water. Men, women and children, sweeping by on pieces of wreck, filled the air with unavailing cries for help. One hundred and nineteen living people were counted going by before 8 o'clock, and the agonizing cries that came up from the water gave evidence of the awful scenes the darkness hid from sight. Very little help could be rendered. No boats could live in such an awful torrent of rushing wreck.

Johnstown was utterly destroyed, only one or two buildings remaining standing. A dozen little towns in the valley were also completely annihilated. Watchers with lanterns remained along the banks until day-break, when the first view of the awful devastation of the flood was witnessed. Along the banks lay the remnants of what had once been dwelling-houses and stores. Here and there was an uprooted tree. Piles of drift lay about, in some of which bodies of victims of the flood were found. Rescuing parties were formed in all of the towns along the railroad. Houses were thrown open to refugees, and every possible means was used to protect the homeless. For two days there was

absolutely no news from Johnstown, no more than if it had never existed on the face of the earth.

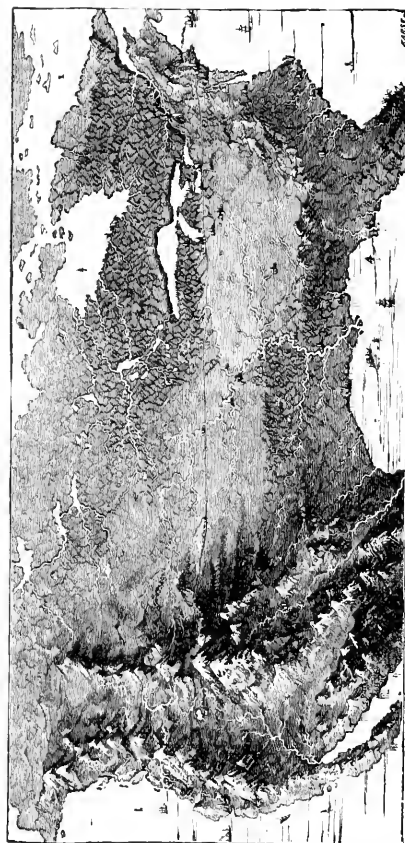
The whole country at once took steps to relieve the necessities of the distressed. The generosity of the world was never more spontaneously or nobly displayed than it was in this calamity. Over \$1,300,000 was raised for the benefit of the sufferers and to relieve the demands of the needy. Pittsburgh alone raised \$150,000 the day after the disaster occurred. The loss of life was between 5,000 and 8,000, and because only 2,500 bodies were recovered, the exact figures as to the number lost will never be known. Over 20,000 people were rendered homeless, and \$38,000,000 worth of property was destroyed.

Strange to say, the waters had hardly subsided before ghouls in human form appeared upon the scene to rob the dead, and steal what property they could. Some of these demons were hanged by mobs, while others were shot. Such was the influx of the lawless into the devastated territory that it was found necessary to call out the militia, and several regiments, under General Hastings, preserved order in the vicinity for many weeks.

The first shock over, the feeling of sorrow among the people at large gave way to a demand for justice and for a thorough investigation into the cause of the disaster, that the blame for it might be placed where it belonged. A coroner's jury was impaneled, and after viewing 700 dead bodies at Johnstown, it proceeded to take testimony, and was over a month at the work. It had been definitely decided that all of the trouble had been caused by the breaking of the South Fork dam. To establish the responsibility for this was the object, therefore, of the inquiry. The South Fork Hunting and Fishing Club members testified that when they bought the site of the old reservoir, a section of 150 feet had been washed out of the middle. This was rebuilt at an expense of \$17,000, and the work was thought to be very strong. At the base the dam was 380 feet thick, and gradually tapered, until at the top it was about 35 feet thick. It was considered amply secure, and such faith had the company in its stability, that the top of the dam was used as a driveway. It took two years to complete the work, men being engaged on it from 1879 to 1881. While it was in process of construction the residents of Johnstown expressed some fears as to the solidity of the work, and requested that it be examined by experts. It was so examined, the experts reporting it to be all right, although pointing out the necessity of stopping all leaks promptly. The members of the club themselves discovered that the sluiceway that carried

off the surplus or overflow from the lake was not large enough in times of storm, so five feet of solid rock were cut away in order to increase the mouth of the lake. The inquiry developed the fact, that in 1881, when work was going on, the water, which was usually fifteen feet below the top of the dam, rose to the top, and threatened to do what it did on the dreadful occasion to which this chapter is devoted. The workmen hastened to the scene and piled debris of all sorts on the top to prevent a washout. It was found by the jury that the five streams from the mountain sides, South Fork, Muddy Run, Dunmeyer's Inlet, Rodebaugh's Inlet and an unnamed brook, had been suddenly surcharged with water, and that this volume, dashing into Conemaugh lake, raised the water above the surface of the dam, washed away the top coping, followed up this advantage by making a gap, and soon caused a yawning crevice that shot the water as from the mouth of a cannon. When once uncontrolled, it was probably a question of only a few moments to tear down the whole dam. The channel of the Conemaugh river is narrow, and the adjacent valley nothing but a gorge. Hence the fearful destructiveness of the flood.

The coroner's jury found that the dam had not been properly constructed; that it had been leaking for some time prior to the catastrophe, and that the members of the fishing club were aware of the fact, but had taken no steps to remedy the evil. They were, therefore, responsible for the disaster. The jury, accordingly, in its verdict, rendered over a month after the calamity, severely censured the members of the South Fork Fishing and Hunting Club, on whom it placed all of the blame. Thus, what was at first deemed an act of Providence, was **proved** to have resulted from the carelessness of man.



BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF THE UNITED STATES.

CHAPTER CVIII.

“Through One Administration.”

THE FOUR YEARS OF PRESIDENT HARRISON'S TERM—COMPLI-
CATIONS WITH ITALY AND GREAT BRITAIN
—RECIPROCITY AND THE PAN-AMERI-
CAN CONGRESS—SECOND ELEC-
TION OF CLEVELAND.



THE four years of the term of Harrison's presidency were full of important events in the making of our country's history. The foreign policy of the administration was vigorous and independent, and it won admiration from all nations, but there were some narrow escapes from an interruption of the many years' successive peace that the nation had enjoyed. With Italy, Great Britain and Chile were disputes that for a time threatened the friendly relations that had existed with those as well as all other nations. But of greater importance than the war-clouds that hovered were the triumphs of peace that marked the administration.

The crowning glory of these was the Pan-American Congress, or the congress of all-America, which met in Washington and was attended with such noble results. In 1826, Gen. Simon Bolivar, the great South American liberator, inaugurated a movement for an international American conference, but it was not until more than sixty years later that the effort culminated in success. On the second of October, 1889, delegates from the eighteen independent nations of the hemisphere, including Hayti, met at Washington to confer concerning certain propositions involving their common welfare and prosperity. None of the European colonies were invited to participate in the conference, for it was felt that their interests were not the same. It was thought that Spain desired to have Cuba and Porto Rico included, but they were not invited. The republic of San Domingo refused the invitation, and the credentials of the Hawaiian delegates did not reach them in time for them to sit in the convention. The

sessions of the conference continued until the 19th of April, 1890, every topic presented for discussion having been considered and formally disposed of. These topics were twenty-five in number, and upon nineteen of them the action of the congress was unanimous. Among the more important results of the congress were these:

A plan of arbitration was adopted for the settlement of differences between the American nations. The delegates from Chile, under instructions, declined to participate in the discussions, because the proposition was contrary to the policy of their government.

The right of conquest was declared to be inadmissible under American public law.

The establishment of an international American monetary union and the issue of an international coin or coins, to be uniform in weight and fineness, was recommended.

The negotiation of reciprocity treaties for the free interchange of certain commodities by the American nations was recommended.

The appointment of an international commission to superintend a survey for an intercontinental railway was recommended, each nation to contribute its share of the expense.

This great Pan-American Congress was only a deliberative body; that is, the delegates were authorized to discuss propositions, and to make such recommendations to their governments as they thought proper, but the ratification of the governments was necessary to make the recommendations effective. But with little delay the plans of arbitration and several others of the things suggested were ratified by most of the governments, and by this time almost every one of the recommendations has been adopted. The inter-continental railway will certainly be an accomplished fact within a few years. Then it will be possible for one to enter a palace car at Chicago or New York and without change of cars to ride to the other side of the equator, finishing the journey at Montevideo or some other far southern city.

The countries which were represented at this great conference were Argentine Republic, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Columbia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Guatamala, Hayti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Peru, Salvador, Uruguay, Venezuela, and the United States.

The president of the congress was James G. Blaine, Secretary of State of the United States. He had been the prime mover in the arrangements, and the congress and the resulting reciprocity treaties were considered by him to be the crowning event of his political life.

The narrowest escape that the United States has had from war with a European nation was during the spring of 1891, when complications arose with Italy that immediately threatened to result in an outbreak of hostilities. The causes that led up to the trouble ended in what was known

as the New Orleans massacre, in which eleven Italians imprisoned in the city jail of that city were murdered by a mob.

On the night of October 15, 1890, David C. Hennessey, chief of police of New Orleans, was murdered in the streets of that city. Two months later eleven Italians were indicted as principals and accessories to the crime. In the middle of February, 1891, their trial began, and after a month the jury found them not guilty. The verdict was universally condemned in New Orleans, and a meeting was called on the 15th of March to take into consideration the vindication of the law. The result was that a large crowd proceeded to the parish prison, and forcing an entrance shot eleven of the accused dead.

The Italian government by its American minister, Baron Fava, immediately demanded of Mr. Blaine that the federal administration interfere for the protection of the living prisoners and the other members of the Italian colony in New Orleans. He demanded also that the mob and those who inspired it be speedily brought to justice.

Mr. Blaine at once telegraphed the governor of Louisiana deploring the massacre, expressing the hope of the President that the subjects of a friendly power be furnished adequate protection, and that the leaders of the mob be promptly brought to justice. A telegram was at the same time sent to the United States minister at Rome, instructing him to convey to the Italian government the profound horror and regret of the President, and to assure it that every possible effort would be made to protect its subjects.

Correspondence passed between the two governments, and demands were made and insisted upon by Italy that assurance should be given by the United States that the leaders of the mob should be punished, and that indemnity should be paid to the families of the victims. These things Mr. Blaine refused to promise until after a thorough investigation, and the Italian minister was, therefore, ordered by his government to withdraw from Washington.

When negotiations closed, the Italian government declared, with grieved indignation, that the United States had shown its unwillingness to do justice and right. An investigation that was completed on the 19th of May, gave positive proof that the jury that tried the Italian prisoners had been tampered with by the friends of the prisoners, and that the trial was a travesty on justice. The result is, that Italy remains in amicable relation with the United States, but that she, nevertheless, feels much aggrieved toward this nation.

During this administration, the seal fisheries dispute between England and the United States has been an event of great importance. Congress in 1868, to preserve the valuable seal fisheries of Alaska, passed regulations that the number to be killed each year should not exceed 100,000.

There was so much poaching in the fisheries that, in 1886, vessels were sent to Behring sea, and it was attempted to enforce the doctrine that Behring sea was a *mare clausum*, and that the United States had jurisdiction over one-half of it. In the enforcement of this claim, three British schooners were captured, and with their cargoes were confiscated. The following summer, five other British vessels were seized. The British government made demands for the release of the prisoners, and presented claims for large damages. The vessels were, therefore, released, and an effort was made toward arbitration of the difficulty. The result was that a *modus vivendi*, or temporary arrangement, was made between the two governments which restricted both for the time being. For a time it had seemed that hostilities might result, but everything ended peaceably.

The revolution in Chile, which had been agitating that country for some months, resulted in a victory for the insurgents and the formation of a new government. During the month of October, 1891, a riot occurred at Valparaiso, which threatened to involve the United States in a war with that South American country. The United States warship, "Baltimore," in the harbor of that city, gave shore leave to a number of sailors, and while they were on land, in the streets of the city, they were attacked by a mob of Chileans, and a number of them were killed after a desperate fight. The commander of the ship reported the outrage to the United States government, and there was great indignation in this country over the outrage. For two or three months there was great excitement in this country over the prospect of a possible war with Chile. The construction of warships was hastened. The President sent messages to Congress regarding the affair, correspondence passed rapidly between the American minister to Chile and the authorities at Washington, and the excitement ended only by an abject apology on the part of Chile, and a promise by that nation to pay liberal indemnity to the families of the murdered sailors.

These three narrow escapes from war, all with countries far from our own land, have impressed our people more and more with the necessity for an enlarged and modern navy, and construction has been carried along with great rapidity during the past four years.

The administration of President Harrison was characterized by the passage of a great deal of very important legislation. The most important of the measures which passed congress was the McKinley bill, which was adopted as a strictly republican measure. It passed the Senate September 30, 1890, by a vote of 33 to 27, and passed the House September 27th, by a vote of 152 to 81. There was much doubt as to the effect of the bill. Mr. Carlisle in a speech in the Senate said it would make an average rate on imports of 60 per cent., while Mr. Morrill put the average rate at less than 50 per cent. While the law increased the

free list considerably, it raised the duties on wool and woollens, tin plate and some other goods, as well as on almost all agricultural products. The law went into effect October 6, 1890.

The same session of congress passed an exceedingly liberal number of acts in the nature of pension legislation; the principal one of these was the disability pension act, which provided that all persons who served ninety days or more in the war of the rebellion and were honorably discharged, and who are suffering from a disability of a permanent character shall be entitled to receive a pension.

The anti-trust law was passed to prevent trusts and unlawful monopolies from conspiring to restrain trade or commerce among the several states or with the foreign nations. Severe penalties were provided to assist in the enforcement of the law.

Two new states were admitted to the union in the same session of congress—Idaho and Wyoming, and Oklahoma was organized as a territory.

At the next session of congress one of the bills of most permanent importance was the international copyright act. After July 1, 1891, all publications published simultaneously in England and America are entitled to secure international copyright. This secures to authors the results of their labor in both continents and avoids the constant pirating of literature that has been too frequent.

It is not only in the United States that things happen which interest Americans. Far to the south of us there is being carried on an enterprise which is of wonderful importance to our country. It is the canal which is to connect the Atlantic and the Pacific oceans through the country of Nicaragua. The idea of joining the Atlantic and Pacific oceans by a canal through the intermediary basin of Lake Nicaragua originated with Antonio Galvano in 1550, but it was not until late years, when increased commerce made a new and quicker route from the East to the West imperative, that it became the subject of much discussion. The Maritime Canal Company of Nicaragua, the successor of several previous companies which had done nothing more than to organize, was incorporated by congress in 1889. The company has engaged to build the canal to completion before 1900. Thousands of miles will then be saved by ships going from the Atlantic to the Pacific ocean, and the commercial value of this artificial waterway will be incalculable.

One man, an American by adoption, who has done much for his own fame and the fame of the nation by his wonderful explorations, completed one of his most remarkable journeys during the year 1889. This was Henry M. Stanley. The object of Mr. Stanley's last trip through Africa was the relief of Emin Pasha, who had been appointed governor of Equatoria by Gen. Gordon previous to his own fall in Khartoum.

This was in 1878. From that time until 1886 he was entirely cut off from the outside world and nothing was heard of him. In 1886 word reached Europe that he was in great distress and peril; money was raised and a relief expedition was placed under the command of Mr. Stanley. He started at once for the heart of Africa, and after a frightful journey of three years, fighting his way inch by inch, he reached Bagamoyo on the Indian ocean December 4, 1889, with Emin Pasha safe. During the three years he had traveled six thousand miles through the most terrible of the African jungles. Mr. Stanley then proceeded to Europe and finally to this country, where he delivered a course of lectures for several months before immense audiences.

Many persons of note in political and educational circles passed from this life during the years from 1889 to 1893. Allen Thorndike Rice, the editor of the *North American Review* and United States minister to Russia, died at New York City May 16, 1889. A few weeks later, on the 24th of June, Donald G. Mitchell, the author of "Reveries of a Bachelor" and other volumes of essays, died in the same city. Henry W. Grady, an orator and editor, author of "The New South," died on the 23d of December at his home in Atlanta, Georgia. John Jacob Astor, the head of the Astor family and a great financier, died at his home in New York, February 22, 1890. Samuel J. Randall, one of the most prominent members of the House of Representatives, and for years the representative of the Philadelphia district, died on the 13th of April at his home in that city. Gen. Clinton B. Fisk, who was the prohibition candidate for the presidency in 1888, died at New York July 9th.

The 13th of July, at New York, there passed away Major-General John C. Fremont, the great "Pathfinder," whose explorations of the West in the days before civilization had passed the Mississippi river won him fame. He was the candidate of the republican party for the presidency in 1856, and throughout his life was a man of great prominence and was greatly honored.

Eugene Schuyler, Consul-General at Cairo, Egypt, and writer and author of a noted history of Peter the Great, died at his far-off post in Egypt the 18th of July. One of the most famous of the humorous writers of America, Benjamin P. Shillaber, who wrote under the nom de plume of "Mrs. Partington," died at Chelsea, Massachusetts, the 25th day of November, at an advanced age.

Mrs. Charles Wetherell, better known as the famous opera singer, Emma Abbott, died at Salt Lake City January 5, 1891. The 17th of the same month there passed away the great statesman, historian and ex-secretary of the navy, George Bancroft, at Washington. Kalakaua, King of Hawaii, died at San Francisco, where he had journeyed for the benefit of his health, on the 20th of January.

January 29th the Hon. William Windom, Secretary of the Treasury of the United States, died at a banquet in New York. The 13th and 14th of February were fatal days to the great men of the times of the rebellion. On the first of those days Admiral David B. Porter, whose name stands next to that of Farragut in the annals of the nation as a naval officer, passed away, and the next day he was followed by Gen. William Tecumseh Sherman, the last of the great triumvirate of union generals, and one of the recognized commanders of modern times.

Lawrence Barrett, the celebrated actor, died March 20th, and March 21st Gen. Joseph E. Johnston, one of the most distinguished of the confederate generals, also passed away. Phineas T. Barnum, the greatest showman who ever lived, died April 7th. One of the most noted of American historians was Benson J. Lossing, who died the third of June. On the same day, August 12th, died James Russell Lowell, poet and diplomat, and George Jones, proprietor of the *New York Times*. William J. Florence, the comedian, who died November 19th, was the second great actor who died during the year. The list of the noble dead for 1892 is also a distinguished one. The 4th of March there died in New Haven the famous educator, Noah Porter, for many years president of Yale college, and editor of Webster's dictionary. The 26th of the same month the "Good Gray Poet," Walt Whitman, died at his home in Camden, New Jersey. Cyrus W. Field, to whose energy was due the first laying and the success of the Atlantic cable, died July 12th at Irvington, New York. George William Curtis, journalist, poet and essayist, died at Livingston, New York, the 31st day of August. The 5th of September Daniel Dougherty, lawyer and orator, died at his home in Philadelphia. Two days later in Hampton Falls, New Hampshire, John Greenleaf Whittier, the "Quaker Poet," died at the age of eighty-five years. The most famous band master of his time, Patrick Sarsfield Gilmore, died in St. Louis, September 24th, at the age of sixty-three years.

Caroline Scott Harrison, wife of the President of the United States, died at the White House, Washington, October 25th. Frederick Schwatka, the celebrated Arctic explorer and geographer, died in Portland, Oregon, the 2d of November. One month from that day there passed away in New York the richest man in the world, the American financier and plutocrat, Jay Gould.

Great catastrophes help to make history. The Chicago fire and the Johnstown flood are events that will never be forgotten. While we may be thankful that no such frightful disasters as these have blighted our country's happiness during the past four years, yet there have been many minor disasters, especially conflagrations, worthy of note. In 1889 two flourishing cities in the new state of Washington suffered almost total annihilation of their business districts by the destroying element. June

6th Seattle was swept with a fire that caused the loss of \$6,000,000, and August 5th a fire \$2,000,000 greater passed over Spokane. Two Massachusetts cities suffered in November. On the 26th day of the month Lynn suffered a loss of \$10,000,000, and an \$8,000,000 fire swept Boston but two days later. Eighteen hundred and ninety saw no such destructive conflagrations. October 28, 1891, occurred the Milwaukee fire, with a loss estimated at \$7,000,000.

Among the important events of a nature other than political, with an influence upon the history of the country, are many incidents worthy of mention. December 9, 1889, occurred the dedication of the great Auditorium building at Chicago. It is a magnificent structure, containing the largest and finest opera house in the United States. The event was considered of such importance that the President of the United States journeyed to Chicago to make the dedicatory speech. Tornadoes in many parts of the country are remembered during the year 1890. At Louisville, on the 27th of March, many buildings were destroyed and nearly one hundred lives were lost. At Lake Pepin, Minnesota, the 13th of July, two hundred lives were lost. The 31st day of July, 1890, was the one hundredth anniversary of the first patent ever issued by the United States government. The patent was granted to Samuel Hopkins for making pot and pearl ashes. Within the century 433,432 patents were issued.

A noble indication of the growing intimacy between the United States and Canada occurred on September 19, 1891, when the tunnel under the St. Clair river, connecting Port Huron and Sarnia, was open for traffic. The tunnel is a single track railway tunnel, more than a mile in length, and the use of it avoids the necessity which previously existed of transferring trains across the river. The sentiment in Canada favoring annexation to the United States is constantly on the increase, and many people believe that a few years more will see our northern sister added to our own family of states.

Man's desire for a new home has been shown by the opening of several Indian reservations for settlement. September 22, 1891, there was a grand rush of home seekers into the Indian lands of Oklahoma, and fifteen thousand persons tried to occupy land which was not more than enough for one-third the number. Two great educational institutions have been organized and opened in the United States during the period of President Harrison's administration. October 1, 1891, the Leland Stanford, Jr., University at Palo Alto, California, opened with 473 students. The university had been endowed with enormous sums of money by ex-Senator Leland Stanford, the California millionaire, as a memorial to his son who died in youth. A year later the University of Chicago opened quietly with a large number of students, a complete faculty and

an immense endowment, which was started by John D. Rockefeller and added to by citizens of Chicago.

Labor troubles were numerous during the years of which we are reading. The most serious of all the disturbances was the riot which was the culmination of the great Homestead strike. At Homestead, Pennsylvania, an iron mining and manufacturing town near Pittsburgh, the laborers employed in the mills belonging to the Carnegie Steel Company struck against a reduction of wages. The owners of the mills sent to the Pinkerton Detective Agency for men to guard their property against a threatened riot, and a large number of men were sent, who came to Homestead on a barge from Pittsburgh. The strikers met them and prevented them from landing. In the battle that resulted, eleven strikers and nine detectives were killed. The militia were called to the scene, and were kept there for several weeks before it was safe to withdraw them. After some time there was a compromise between the owners and the workmen, and the strike was declared ended, and the men permitted to return to work.

An international conference, in which the interests of the United States were great, was held at Brussels, Belgium, beginning November 22, 1892. It was the international monetary conference, at which delegates from various countries of the world met to discuss the silver and gold questions and their relation to one another as standards of value. The results attained were exceedingly important, particularly to the silver-producing states of the union.

In the summer of 1891, an expedition under the command of Lieutenant Peary, of the United States navy, landed on the west coast of Greenland, nearly at the extremity of previous explorations, to spend a winter in that desolate land. Lieutenant Peary's brave wife accompanied him, and with their small party they remained there in the far Arctic regions through the six months of night until the following summer, when the ship returned and bore them back to civilization. During that time Lieutenant Peary, with one companion, had made a journey of two thousand miles on snow shoes, which resulted in discoveries of great interest to geographers.

In the fall of 1892, our country was frightened at a threatened invasion of cholera which had left its crowded Asiatic cities, where it makes its home, and had already spread over portions of Europe. The 31st day of August the steamer "Moravia" arrived from Hamburg at New York with cholera on board, twenty-two deaths having taken place during the voyage. Ship after ship reached New York harbor with the dread disease, but a rigid quarantine stamped it out before it gained a foothold on our shores.

Probably, without exception, the most important event of the Harri-

son administration was the election that ended it. The enactment of the McKinley bill had aroused great opposition to the policy of extreme protection even among many who had been life-long republicans. The result showed in the election of November 8, 1892, when the country was swept by an overwhelming political landslide in favor of the democratic candidates. At Minneapolis, on the 10th of June, the republican national convention had put in nomination President Benjamin Harrison to succeed himself, and Whitelaw Reid, of New York, for the vice-presidency. On the 22d of the same month, the democratic convention, at Chicago, nominated Grover Cleveland, and Adlai Stevenson of Illinois, for the presidency and vice-presidency. The campaign that followed was warmly contested, but without the bitterness and acrimony that had characterized past elections. The election was a surprise to every one, not so much in the general result as in the wonderful extent of the landslide. State after state, that for thirty years had been faithfully republican, was carried by the democratic party with large majorities. There seems little doubt that the result of the election was due to a popular revolt against the extreme measures and the policy of the McKinley bill.

The general prosperity of the country during the four years of Mr. Harrison's administration was unexampled. New enterprises multiplied. Many portions of the western states were open to settlement and the development of the country in every direction was remarkable. The administration was business-like and honest, winning the admiration of all, both at home and abroad, for its vigorous American policy and its liberal spirit in the effort to increase American commerce and influence. The administration was marked for the number of deaths that occurred among the immediate family and official associates of the President. His wife, his father-in-law, the wife and daughter of his Secretary of the Navy, and his ex-Secretary of State were the more notable of these.

Three men of political note who died during the first months of 1893 were ex-President Rutherford B. Hayes, Justice of the Supreme Court L. Q. C. Lamar and Gen. Benjamin F. Butler. The career of President Hayes is briefly told in the chapter relating to his administration. After the expiration of his term as President, he retired to his home at Fremont, Ohio, where he lived until the time of his death. He passed away on the night of January 17th.

Several prominent people died during the year. Among others were Edwin Booth, the tragedian, Lucy Stone, the noted advocate of woman's rights, and Leland Stanford, the founder of Stanford University, California.

The death of Justice Lamar at Macon, Georgia, on the evening of January 23d, was a great shock and surprise to the country, as he had not been suffering illness. Lucius Quintus Curtius Lamar was born in Putnam county, Georgia, September 1, 1825. He graduated at Emory Col-

lege, studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1847. In 1853, he was elected to the Legislature, but a year later returned to Mississippi and settled on his plantation. He served in congress from 1857 till 1860, when he resigned to join the confederate army. He rose to the rank of colonel, after the war he again served as a representative and then as a senator. On March 5, 1885, President Cleveland appointed him secretary of the interior, and afterward elevated him to a seat on the supreme bench.

One of the most unique figures in American history is Gen. Benjamin Franklin Butler, who was born at Deerfield, New Hampshire, November 5, 1818. He was one of the first to enlist in the Massachusetts volunteers at the outbreak of the rebellion, and commanded the camp at Annapolis. In May, 1861, he was made a major-general and assumed command of the department of Virginia. At this time he made his famous point in regard to fugitive slaves, refusing to send them back to their owners on the ground that they were "property contraband of war." Gen. Butler was appointed commander of the gulf in 1862, and established headquarters at New Orleans. It was there that he roused the indignation of the southerners and made political capital for his enemies throughout the rest of his life by the strict military discipline with which he ruled the city. After the war for twenty years he devoted himself to candidacy for office, running indiscriminately as a republican, democrat or greenbacker, for any office for which he could secure a nomination, and sometimes as an independent candidate when he failed to secure one. His various efforts included four successive elections to congress as a republican, one election to the governorship of Massachusetts as a democrat, and a campaign for the presidency as a candidate of the greenback party. His checkered career ended at Washington on the morning of January 11, 1893.

CHAPTER CIX.

The Passing of a Great Man.

THE DEATH OF JAMES GILLESPIE BLAINE—ELECTION TO CON-
GRESS—CANDIDATE FOR THE PRESIDENCY—RECI-
PROCITY AND THE PAN-AMERICAN
CONGRESS—THE GRIEF OF
THE NATION.



URING the last quarter of a century there has been one man more prominently than any other before the notice of the people of the United States. Whether friend or enemy, no one has denied his marvelous talents and his wonderful influence over his hosts of admirers. That man was James Gillespie Blaine, of Maine, orator, politician and statesman. For weeks the country had been waiting in anticipation of his death, for a fatal disease had him in its grasp. But when on the 27th day of January, 1893, it was announced that the great man was gone, the shock and grief throughout the nation was almost equal to that which followed the news of the assassination of the two martyred presidents, Lincoln and Garfield, or the death of Grant.

Blaine's career was not only brilliant. It was unique in his own generation. A search through the past finds some historical parallels for him, notably Henry Clay, but whether he be considered as politician or statesman, the period of his career contains no one like him. This does not mean unqualified commendation. His best friends are willing to confess that there have been things in his past that were not to his highest credit. But those who had been his earnest enemies for a generation, by the side of an open grave were forgetful of what in the heat of conflict they had been bitterest to condemn, and to remember but the good things, the wise and patriotic things that were so plentiful to remember. And so on the morning after his death, on the editorial pages of the partisan press of the country, republican and democratic alike, there were few except kind words and memories for the one who for so many years had been in the public service of his country.

One of the highest tests of the knowledge that the people had of this man, and at the same time of his intimacy and association with them, and their love for him, is that for years he had come to be known not as J. G. Blaine, not as James G. Blaine, but as "Blaine." And Blaine was a man of the people in every sense, a popular idol and a popular champion.

Simple relation of the facts of the career of Mr. Blaine is enough for what would be considered in fiction an interesting story, for the intensely dramatic feature throughout his life is the one that appears strongest and most often to the biographer and student of his life. His life was a succession of climaxes, some of them with an appearance of effort toward stage effect, more the unavoidable culmination of surrounding circumstances. But none of them needs to be exaggerated to make material for an account of an interesting career, full of the lessons of the possibilities that exist in this country of ours. For Blaine was in everything first an American, and a lover of his country. It was not deep poverty from which he came, nor did he attain immense wealth, but his achievements were entirely political. In spite of that, he was always stopped just short of the goal that he most desired, the presidency.

James Gillespie Blaine was born in West Brownsville, Washington county, Pennsylvania, January 31, 1830, the second son of Ephraim L. Blaine and Maria Gillespie. The qualities which he inherited from the father's side were those hardy and energetic ones of the Scotch-Irish blood. His father's grandfather, also an Ephraim, who lived from 1741 to 1804, held honorable positions in the war of the revolution. He was an officer of the Pennsylvania line, a trusted friend of Washington, and during the last four years of the war, served as the commissary general of the northern department of his command. He was a man of large means, and during the terrible winter at Valley Forge, his own private purse and those of his friends were opened freely to aid in the maintenance of the army.

The founders of his branch of the Blaine family had been among the founders of Carlisle, and from there in the Cumberland valley Mr. Blaine's father removed to Washington county in 1818. He was a man of liberal education, and considerable travel through Europe and South America had served to teach him the world before he settled down among the mountains in western Pennsylvania. A large amount of mineral land in that part of the state had been inherited by him, and also a sum of money that in those modest days was considered a fortune. But the land was undeveloped and a large family was a drain upon his resources, so he was not by any means in affluent circumstances.

But James was given every advantage of excellent education with the best of teachers at his own home. His father was the prothonotary of the county, an office of considerable importance, was of a most liberal

and genial character, kept open house and gave largely to charities. Though his family for generations were staunch Presbyterians, he married a Miss Gillespie, who was a Catholic, and the daughter of a pioneer of distinction in western Pennsylvania. She was a woman of fine qualities, and James was her favorite one of three sons.

For a part of the year 1841, young Blaine, in pursuit of his studies, was at school in Lancaster, Ohio, where he lived in the family of his relative, Thomas Ewing, then Secretary of the Treasury. In association with Thomas Ewing, Jr., afterward a member of congress, he began his preparations for college under the instruction of a thoroughly trained Englishman, William Lyons, brother of Lord Lyons.

At the age of thirteen years James was sent to Washington and Jefferson college, an old Presbyterian institution in his native county, and there he graduated in 1847, in a distinguished class of forty-seven members. Although the youngest in his class, he stood at its head in merit, ranking John C. Hervey, of Virginia, and Thomas W. Porter, of Pennsylvania. At college, a mere boy among two hundred or three hundred students, Blaine was, from the first a leader. An unusually fine physique made him foremost in athletics, and a rare memory and exceptional intellectual powers gave him an easily attained prominence in his studies. He excelled in mathematics and was an excellent linguist. Still more was he noted as an omnivorous reader, devouring the best literature at his command, and able by his retentive memory to store his mind with choice gems. Already two traits that stand out most prominent in the man were notable in the boy—personal magnetism and ambition. He was at once the popular fellow and the hero among the students, and his mind was even then intent on achieving fame for himself. At the college commencement he distinguished himself by an oration on "The Duty of an Educated American," which attracted considerable attention from the matured and well-considered observations which it contained, and the ambitious industry which it foreshadowed.

By the time young Blaine had finished his college course his father had lost the greater part of his property, and it became necessary for the young man to seek some fortune of his own. He began his search in Kentucky as professor of mathematics in the Western Military Institute at Blue Lick Springs, where there were five hundred students. He found a fortune—his wife. At the neighboring town of Millersburg was a seminary for young ladies, and connected with it was Miss Harriet Stanwood, who had been sent there from Maine to be educated. The immediate result of an acquaintance was an attachment, and within a few months they were married.

Blaine and his wife soon returned to Pennsylvania. He read law for a time, and after a few months' study became an instructor in the Penn-

sylvania institution for the blind at Philadelphia. The young teacher had charge of the higher classes in literature and science, and the principal has left a record that his "brilliant mental powers were exactly qualified to enlighten and instruct the interesting minds before him."

His wife's influence now led him to the state with which his name is indissolubly connected. It was in 1854, after an association of two years with the institution for the blind, that he removed to Augusta, which city from that time was his home. He was then practically without means or a position, and was assisted by the brothers of his wife to purchase a half interest in the *Kennebec Journal*. He became the editor of the paper, and found himself to be peculiarly adapted for such work. He speedily made his impress, and within three years was a master spirit in the politics of the state.

Previous to 1854 the government of Maine had been in the hands of the democratic party, but it was defeated in that year by a temporary fusion of the anti-slavery and the temperance elements. The following year the diverse elements which had carried the state were consolidated, and the republican party became firmly established. It is fair to Mr. Blaine to say that to him, in large measure, was due the unvarying certainty with which Maine was carried for the republican party through all the years since then.

But Mr. Blaine did not by any means confine himself to political "leaders." He took an active part in politics, attending republican meetings throughout the state, and made himself one of the recognized republican leaders. His political addresses, and especially the ability which he displayed in them as a debater, won him great local reputation. In 1856, he was a delegate to the first republican national convention which nominated Gen. Fremont for the presidency. It was his report at a public meeting on his return home, where he spoke at the outset with hesitation and embarrassment, and advanced to confident and fervid utterances, that first illustrated his capacity on the platform and gave him standing as a public speaker. In 1857 he assumed the editorship of the *Portland Advertiser*, but a year later he ended his editorial career to begin the parliamentary.

Although but twenty-eight years old and but five years in the state, in 1858, Mr. Blaine's distinction as a speaker won him an election to a seat in the Legislature. The ability that he displayed in this position was so marked that his constituents returned him four years in succession, and the Assembly, recognizing his talents, elected him speaker in 1860 and 1861, a rare honor for so young a man. The same year that he was elected to the Legislature he became chairman of the Republican State committee, a position which he continued to hold uninterruptedly for twenty years. At the beginning of the civil war, Mr. Blaine gained

distinction, not only for his parliamentary skill, but also for his forensic power in the debates that grew out of that crisis.

A man of Mr. Blaine's ability, of his rare knowledge of parliamentary usages, and, above all, of his ambitions, was not likely to remain long content with the position of a representative in a state legislature. He aimed at greater things, at higher things, and they soon came. After four years' experience in the legislature, Mr. Blaine was, in September, 1862, elected to the XXXVIIIth Congress from the Kennebec district. He took his seat in the following year, serving on the Committee on Postoffices and Post-roads. From that period Mr. Blaine's career has been a part of national history. He was returned to the lower house of congress for seven successive terms.

During his earlier years he made few elaborate addresses. In the first term his only extended speech was an argument in favor of the assumption of the state war debts by the general government, and in demonstration of the ability of the North to carry the war to a successful conclusion. But he gradually took a part in the running discussions, and soon acquired high repute as an effective and a facile debater. As a member of the committee on postoffices, he was largely instrumental in securing the introduction of the system of postal cars. He earnestly sustained all measures for the vigorous prosecution of the war, but sought to make them judicious and practical. In this spirit he supported the bill for the draft, but opposed absolute conscription. He contended that it should be relieved by provisions for commutation and substitution, and urged that an inexorable draft had never been resorted to but once, even under the absolutism of Napoleon. At the same time he enforced the duty of sustaining and strengthening the armies in the field by using all the resources of the nation, and strongly advocated the enrollment act. In the XXXIXth Congress, Mr. Blaine also served on the special committee on the death of President Lincoln.

The attention of congress was largely engrossed from the year 1865 to 1869 with measures looking to the reconstruction of the states that had been in rebellion, and Mr. Blaine bore a prominent part in the discussion of these measures and the work of framing them. It was in this connection that he came in controversy with Thaddeus Stevens, chairman of the committee on reconstruction. The first question to be determined was the basis of representation on which the states should be readmitted. Mr. Stevens had proposed that representation should be apportioned according to the number of legal voters.

Mr. Blaine strenuously objected to this proposition, and urged that population instead of voters should be the basis. He submitted a constitutional amendment providing that "representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several states which shall be included

within this union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by taking the whole number of persons, except those whose political rights or privileges are denied or abridged by the constitution of any state on account of race or color." The result of the discussion that followed was the abandonment of the theory that apportionment should be based on voters, and Mr. Blaine's resolution finally became the basis of that part of the fourteenth amendment relating to congressional representation.

The reconstruction bill was reported by Mr. Stevens, February 6, 1867. It divided the states lately in rebellion into five military districts, and practically established military government therein. The civil tribunals were made subject to military control. The bill seemed acceptable to the majority of the party, but Mr. Blaine declared his unwillingness to support any measure that would place the South under military government, if it did not at the same time prescribe the methods by which the people of a state, by their own action, could re-establish civil government. He accordingly proposed an amendment, providing that when any one of the late so-called confederate states should assent to the fourteenth amendment to the constitution, and should establish equal and impartial suffrage without regard to race or color, and when congress should approve its action, it should be entitled to representation, and the provisions for military government should become inoperative. This proposition came to be known as the Blaine amendment.

In advocating it Mr. Blaine expressed the belief that the true interpretation of the election of 1866 was that in addition to the proposed constitutional amendment, the fourteenth, impartial suffrage should be the basis of reconstruction, and he urged the wisdom of declaring the terms at once. The application of the previous question ruled out the Blaine amendment, but it was renewed in the Senate, and finally carried to both branches, and under it reconstruction was completed.

Some of the most strikingly dramatic scenes in the life of Mr. Blaine have had mingled together touches of both tragedy and comedy. His second term in the House had not elapsed when there came that angry tilt with Mr. Conkling, his rival for the republican leadership of the House, which caused a breach between the two men that lasted many years, and that had a powerful influence on the political future of both of them. The tragic element in this was that it probably resulted in the defeat of Mr. Blaine for the nomination for the presidency in 1876 and 1880, and postponed his success in securing the nomination until that time, in 1884, when there was no hope for a republican victory in the election. The comedy was that Mr. Blaine frankly called Mr. Conkling "a strutting turkey-cock," and that it exactly expressed what many before had thought, but had not dared to say.

Mr. Blaine was ever frank in saying to men's faces the things he said behind them, and many of his bitterest enemies were so made.

In the summer of 1867, while Mr. Blaine was absent in Europe, the theory that the public debt should be paid in greenbacks developed considerable strength. On his return, at the opening of the next session, he made an extended speech against this doctrine, and was the first man in congress to give utterance to this opposition.

The long unsettled question of protecting naturalized American citizens while abroad attracted special attention at this time. Costello, Warren, Burke, and other Irish-Americans had been arrested in England on the charge of complicity in Fenian plots. Costello had made a speech in 1865, in New York, which was regarded as treasonable by the British government, and he was treated as a British subject and tried under an old law on this accusation. His plea of American citizenship was overruled, and he was convicted and sentenced to sixteen years' penal servitude. Mr. Blaine, who, with other American statesmen, resisted the English doctrine of perpetual allegiance and maintained that a naturalized American was entitled to the same protection abroad that would be given to a native American, took active part in settling these questions upon public attention, and as the result of the agitation Costello was released. The discussion of these cases led to the treaty of 1870, in which Great Britain abandoned the doctrine "Once a subject, always a subject," and accepted the American principle of equal rights and protection for adopted and for native citizens.

After a term of six years in congress, when, in 1869, Schuyler Colfax was promoted to the vice-presidency, Mr. Blaine was elected speaker of the House by a majority of 135 votes to 57 for Mr. Kerr, of Indiana. He proved himself eminently fitted for the position. His quickness, his thorough knowledge of parliamentary law and of the rules, his firmness, clear voice, impressive manner, his ready comprehension of subjects and situations were widely recognized, and really made him a great presiding officer. He rose to a high place in the estimation not only of his republican friends, but also of his democratic opponents, and he was re-elected to the speakership in 1871 and again in 1873.

Though necessarily exercising a powerful influence upon the course of legislation, he seldom left the chair to mingle in the contests of the floor. On one of these rare occasions, in March, 1871, he had a sharp tilt with Gen. Butler, who had criticised him for being the author of the resolution providing for an investigation into alleged outrages perpetrated upon loyal citizens of the South, and for being chiefly instrumental in securing its adoption by the republican caucus.

The political revulsion of 1874 placed the democrats in control of the House, and Mr. Blaine became the leader of the minority. The session

preceding the presidential contest of 1876 was a period of stormy and vehement contention. A general amnesty bill was brought forward, removing the political disabilities of participants in the rebellion which had been imposed by the fourteenth amendment to the constitution. Another climax in Mr. Blaine's life drama developed from this. He moved to amend by making an exception of Jefferson Davis, and supported the proposition in an impassioned speech. After asserting the great magnanimity of the government and pointing out how far amnesty had already been carried, he defined the ground of its proposed exception. The reason was not that Davis was the chief of the confederacy, but that, as Mr. Blaine affirmed, he was the author, "knowingly, deliberately, guiltily and willfully of the gigantic murders and crimes of Andersonville."

In fiery words Mr. Blaine proceeded to declare that no military atrocities in history had exceeded those for which Davis was thus responsible. His outburst naturally produced deep excitement in the House and throughout the country. If Mr. Blaine's object as a political leader was to arouse partisan feeling and activity preparatory to the presidential struggle, he succeeded. An acrid debate followed. Benjamin H. Hill, of Georgia, assumed the lead on the other side and not only defended Davis against the accusations, which he pronounced unfounded, but preferred some other charges against the treatment of southern prisoners in the North. In reply Mr. Blaine turned upon Mr. Hill with the citation of a resolution introduced by him in the confederate Senate, providing that every soldier or officer of the United States captured on the soil of the confederate states should be presumed to have come with intent to incite insurrection, and should suffer the penalty of death. This episode arrested universal attention and gave Mr. Blaine a still stronger hold as a leader of his party.

During the whole of that session Blaine never lost an opportunity to open the old political sores, and before the adjournment he had done more to foment discord between the people of the North and South than any other ten men who ever occupied seats on the floor of the House. He appeared to have made a study of the art of making himself intensely disagreeable to his political enemies. A calm debate had no attractions to him. Before he had been on his feet ten minutes he would be surrounded by an excited and yelling crowd. His ability to sway the passions of men was wonderful. In thus fighting over the battles of his country with the enemy, which it may here with propriety be remarked he never met in the field, he won great renown in the North, and easily captivated a large element in the republican party, who believed that the country was safe so long as the democrats were being scourged oratorically or otherwise.

The culmination of enmity and suspicion now came upon him in the chain of incidents included in the popular mind when reference is made to the "Mulligan letters." The first attacks came in the shape of charges that he had received \$64,000 from the Union Pacific Railroad Company for certain services which were not defined, but presumably rendered in his character as member of congress. He rose to a personal explanation April 24, 1876, in the House, producing letters from the officers of the company, and from the bankers who were asserted to have negotiated the draft, in which they announced that there had never been any such transaction, and that Blaine had never received a dollar from the company. Mr. Blaine went on to say that the charge had reappeared in the form of a statement that he had received bonds of the Little Rock & Fort Smith railroad as a gift, and that these bonds had been sold for his benefit through the Union Pacific Railroad Company. He said he never had such bonds except at the market price; that instead of taking a profit from them he had suffered loss.

A few days after a new attack was made on him. This was that he had received, as a gift, certain bonds of the Kansas Pacific railroad, and had been concerned in a suit about them in the Kansas court. His reply was that his brother, not himself, was the party interested, the brother having been one of the early settlers of Kansas, and had bought stock in the Kansas Pacific before James G. was in congress. But the public was not satisfied. It was openly charged that the Little Rock & Fort Smith railroad subsidy had been procured by means of gross bribery in the House, and that there was certain evidence that Mr. Blaine had been interested in the matter in some way. An investigation of his part of the transaction was at once begun.

To a man occupying the position he did, and having his aspirations, this inquiry was a terrible blow. The republican national convention, which he expected would nominate him for the presidency, was soon to meet at Cincinnati. The investigators were working tooth and nail. Intense interest was taken in the inquiry by men of both political parties, but particularly by the republican leaders, who were, of course, anxious to avoid the nomination of a man, no matter how brilliant his intellectual powers, who would be compelled at the very threshold of the campaign to attempt an explanation of certain questionable transactions. At this juncture one Mulligan, a railroad man of Boston, came to the surface in an interview, in the course of which he declared that the charges against Blaine were true, and that he had in his possession letters from that gentleman himself to prove it. As far back as 1864, when many of Mr. Blaine's business enterprises were conducted by and through his brother-in-law, Jacob Stanwood, in Boston, this brother-in-law had a private book-keeper named James Mulligan. It was known that Mulligan had quar-

reled with his old-time friend on account of the failure, supposedly on Blaine's part, to recognize the value of his services. He was summoned as a witness by the investigating committee.

Mulligan came to Washington with all these letters, particularly an extended business correspondence with Warren Fisher of Boston, running through years, and relating to various transactions, which, it was alleged, would confirm the imputation against Mr. Blaine. Mulligan's story, as told under oath, was that, on the night of his arrival in Washington, he was invited with other witnesses to visit Mr. Blaine's house. He declined to go there. The next morning, Mr. Blaine went to his hotel and gained admittance to his room. Here, according to Mulligan's sworn testimony, some days later, Mr. Blaine begged him to save him and his family from ruin, but Mulligan was obdurate. After a second conference between the witnesses and Mr. Blaine at the residence of the latter, Mr. Blaine again visited Mr. Mulligan in his room. He there begged for the privilege of reading the letters in the hope of being able to explain away their admittance, and pledging his word to restore them forthwith. Mr. Mulligan handed him the package. Mr. Blaine instantly threw the letters into an open grate, and the correspondence was burned. This is Mulligan's story as told under oath. Mr. Blaine and his friends have always denied that there was the slightest foundation in fact for this testimony.

June 5th, Mr. Blaine rose in his place in the House to make another personal explanation. After denying the power of the House to compel the production of his private papers, and his willingness to go to any extremity in defense of his rights, he declared his purpose to reserve nothing. Holding up a package of letters claimed to be the ones obtained from Mulligan, he exclaimed: "Thank God, I am not ashamed to show them. There is the very original package, and with some sense of humiliation, with a mortification I do not attempt to conceal, with a sense of outrage which I think any man in my position would feel, I invite the confidence of 44,000,000 of my countrymen while I read those letters from this desk."

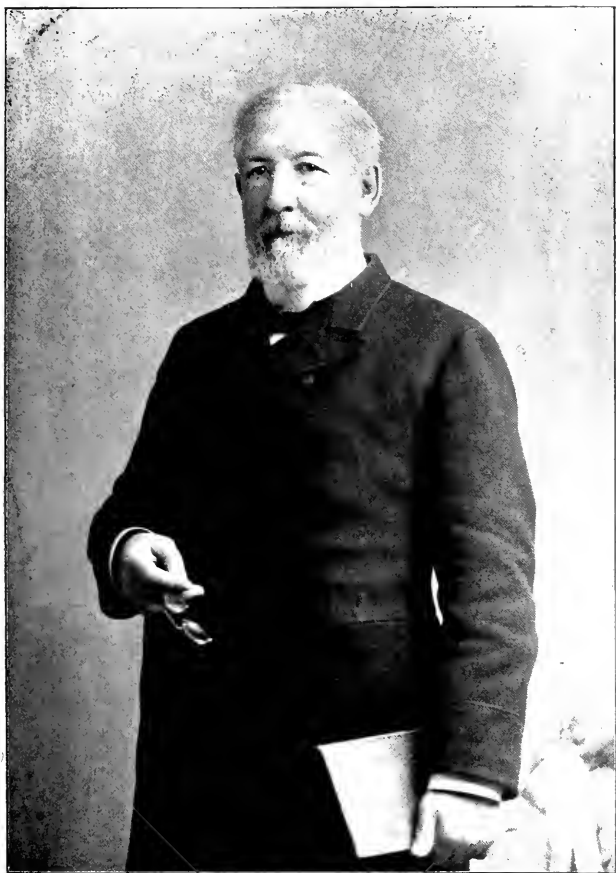
He then proceeded to read the letters. The demonstration closed with a dramatic scene. Josiah Caldwell, one of the originators of the Little Rock & Fort Smith railroad, who had full knowledge of the whole transaction, was traveling in Europe, and both sides were seeking to communicate with him. After finishing the reading of the letters, Mr. Blaine turned to the chairman of the committee, J. Proctor Knott of Kentucky, and demanded to know whether he had received any dispatch from Mr. Caldwell. Receiving an evasive answer, Mr. Blaine asserted, as within his own knowledge, that the chairman had received such a dispatch, "completely and absolutely exonerating me from this charge, and you have suppressed it." A profound sensation was created, and Gen. Garfield

said: "I have been a long time in Congress and never saw such a scene in the House."

The republican national convention of 1876 convened in Cincinnati before the excitement caused by this investigation had subsided. Mr. Blaine's popularity in the convention was marvelous. The Sunday before the convention met in session, Mr. Blaine was taken sick in a manner as spectacular and sensational as had been the investigation. He started for church at Washington with his cousin, Miss Dodge, better known in literature as Gail Hamilton. The church, which was Dr. Rankin's church, on Tenth street, was more than half a mile from his house, but, though the day was intensely hot, they walked the entire distance. Just as they reached the door of the sanctuary Mr. Blaine fell with great violence to the walk as if dead. A large crowd gathered, and he was with difficulty conveyed to his home. Bulletins concerning him were sent to all parts of the country, and caused a profound sensation.

At Cincinnati the feeling was most intense. It appeared from the statements of his physicians that he had been prostrated by the heat, but his enemies declared that his alleged illness was only the work of a consummate actor, who had adopted this device to gain sympathy and cause an adjournment of the Mulligan inquiry until after the Cincinnati convention had done its work. The investigation was indeed abandoned, but at the convention the opponents of Blaine urged with a good deal of force that he was a broken man and that it was useless to nominate him. In this convention the enmity of Roscoe Conkling, engendered long years before, asserted itself triumphantly. It was his influence that defeated Blaine. The nomination was made Friday, June 16th, on the seventh ballot. All the luck ran against Blaine during this convention. There was a sunstroke to begin with, and then a dozen minor incidents were annoying until the crowning mishap of Thursday, June 15th. The nominating speech had been confided to Col. Robert G. Ingersoll, then of Illinois. The orator had a wide fame in the West, but was yet quite unknown to the country at large. He had not been long on his feet, when entranced by the magnetism of the man, as well as carried away by the flood of his marvelous eloquence, he actually had the whole convention at his feet. He kept the delegates with him to the close, when the pent-up enthusiasm broke forth. Such a scene had never before till then been witnessed in America.

There has never been a question, if the vote had been taken at this hour, that Mr. Blaine would have been nominated. It was late in the evening; darkness was swiftly coming on. There was no gas in the hall, so that it was not possible to hold a night session, and the convention had to adjourn until the following day. During the night the combinations were made which nominated Gov. Hayes. The effect of Col. Ingersoll's



JAMES G. BLAINE

eloquence was lost. Mr. Blaine was beaten. It was in this famous speech of Ingersoll's that Mr. Blaine was christened "The Plumed Knight," and he has ever since been known to his admirers by that sobriquet.

Immediately after the convention, on the resignation of Senator Morrill to accept the secretaryship of the treasury, Mr. Blaine was appointed senator to fill the unexpired term, and in the following winter he was chosen by the Legislature for the full ensuing term. In the Senate he engaged actively in the discussion of all current questions. He opposed the creation of the electoral commission for the settlement of the disputed presidential election of 1876, on the ground that congress did not itself possess the power that it proposed to confer on the commission. He held that President Hayes' southern policy surrendered too much of what had been gained through reconstruction, and contended that the validity of his own title involved the maintenance of the state government in South Carolina and Louisiana, which rested upon the same popular vote. He favored a bi-metallic currency, and equally resisted the adoption of the single gold standard and the depreciation of silver. Measures for the development and protection of American shipping early engaged his attention. In 1878 he advocated the establishment of a line of mail steamers to Brazil, and unhesitatingly urged the application of a subsidy to this object.

In the four years immediately following the Cincinnati convention Mr. Blaine's admirers had not been idle, nor had they lost hope of his ultimate nomination for the presidency. When the Chicago convention assembled they were there in full force, and with a good deal of confidence in the final result. They were doomed to suffer disappointment once more. The convention was the most memorable in the history of American politics. Its session continued for six days, and thirty-six ballots were taken before Gen. Garfield was finally nominated.

Mr. Blaine put forth his best efforts to secure Gen. Garfield's election, and upon the inauguration of the new President became Secretary of State. His foreign policy as outlined by himself had two principal objects. The first was to secure peace and keep it between all the nations of this continent. The next was to cultivate close commercial relations, and increase our trade with the different countries of Central and South America and Mexico. Blaine devised a great peace congress to be held in Washington, to which all the independent powers of both North and South America were to be invited. His plan contemplated the cultivation of such a friendly understanding on the part of the powers as would permanently avert the horrors of war, either through the influence of specific councils or the acceptance of impartial arbitration. Incidentally, he assumed that the assembling of their representatives at Washington would

open the way to such relation as would inure to the commercial advantage of their country.

After the death of Garfield, his successor reversed Mr. Blaine's policy. Many people were relieved that Mr. Blaine's aggressive administration was ended, for they believed that he was rapidly getting the country embroiled with England, and that his policy of adventure in South America might have an unforeseen end. In the spring of 1882, the course of the government in relation to Chilean and Peruvian affairs the previous year, was made the subject of investigation by the House of Representatives. The ex-secretary was placed on the witness stand. His examination and cross-examination lasted for three days, with the result that his friends were loud in their claims that nothing whatever had been shown against him.

It was while he was the controlling spirit of the Garfield administration that Mr. Blaine paid off his old grudge against Roscoe Conkling by breaking him over the wheel of New York patronage. From this quarrel grew the factional fight between the "half-breeds" and "stalwarts," which finally turned the weak brain of Guiteau. Mr. Blaine was with the President on that beautiful July morning in 1881, when the assassin's bullet put to a painful end a career so full of promise, and during the President's eighty days of suffering he was daily at his bedside. It was fitting that Mr. Blaine should be selected as Garfield's eulogist by Congress, and his speech, full of touching references to his dead friend, is yet treasured by many as a superb composition.

Upon the retirement of Mr. Blaine from the State Department in December, 1881, he was, for the first time in twenty-three years, out of public service. He immediately entered upon the composition of an elaborate historical work, entitled, "Twenty Years in Congress." The work had a very wide sale and secured general approval for its impartial spirit and brilliant style.

In 1884, for the third time, he was presented as a candidate before the republican national convention, once more held in Chicago. This time he secured the nomination for president. A contest never surpassed for acrimony followed. A very large number of republicans, headed by several newspapers which had always theretofore followed the party dictates, bolted the nominations and actively supported Mr. Cleveland, the democratic candidate. All sorts of extraneous matters were dragged into the party warfare. Feeling most acutely the hazardous situation in which he was placed, Blaine went into the canvass with even more than his ordinary fiery energy. After it was all over, November 19th, Mr. Blaine made a bitter speech at Augusta, charging his defeat upon the people of the South, claiming that the votes of the colored people in that section

were not allowed to be cast for him, or that, if so cast, they were not counted. The address provoked widespread criticism.

Mr. Blaine sailed for Europe early in June, 1887, landing at Southampton and going over to London. He visited the continent later and spent some time in France; afterward, as the winter drew near, he journeyed to the coast of the Mediterranean. His travels were followed with intense interest by the newspapers, while the desire to obtain definite information in regard to the next year's nomination did not abate. From Florence, in January, he addressed a letter to B. F. Jones, chairman of the national committee, in which he gave what seemed to be an emphatic refusal to be a candidate. At first this declaration was accepted as having been given in perfect good faith, then there began to be doubts expressed. Finally the whole country got into a foggy condition of mind on the subject. All the while Mr. Blaine's friends were active, and convention after convention selected Blaine delegates to Chicago. Mr. Blaine was grieved to find himself so much misunderstood, so May 17th, while in Paris, he wrote a letter to Whitelaw Reid, in which he left no doubt of his purpose to decline with proper honor.

When Mr. Harrison was elected President Mr. Blaine became Secretary of State. It was freely stated that the President would have preferred another premier, but he was forced by Mr. Blaine's friends and the party to so recognize him if he cared for a peaceful administration. Once installed in office, the secretary turned his attention, so far as he could, to taking up the lines he had laid down when he resigned. He bent his energies to an attempt to build up a trade of the United States with South America. To that end what was known as the pan-American congress was assembled, and whatever was accomplished was due to his untiring efforts.

The session of 1890 brought with it the discussion and final enactment of the McKinley tariff bill. Mr. Blaine preserved a long silence on this measure, a silence so profound that whispers found their way into circulation that the Secretary of State had no faith in the success of the bill. At last all doubt on the subject was removed by the publication of his celebrated letter to Senator Frye. This missive was one of the most important ever written by a cabinet officer, and created a great sensation both in congress and among the people. In it he declared himself against certain provisions of the McKinley bill, but later, when the bill was adopted, explained that it had been corrected to the extent that he desired.

During his term as Secretary of State for Mr. Harrison he was active in advancing his policy of reciprocity. When it came near time for the Minneapolis convention of June, 1892, there was another conflict in the public mind as to whether or not Mr. Blaine was a candidate for the nomina-

tion. On the fourth of June, just before the convention, he tendered his resignation to Mr. Harrison, and it was immediately accepted. This was taken by many to be a distinct declaration of his candidacy. But the resignation was frequently assigned to the fact that certain policies which he advanced in cabinet meeting had been received by the President in a way that he understood to mean an affront. His name was presented to the convention, but many of his former friends were committed to the interests of President Harrison, who was renominated on the first ballot. In the campaign that followed, which resulted in the defeat of the President, Mr. Blaine's failing health permitted him to take but little part.

Mr. Blaine had seven children, of whom the first died when but an infant. The eldest son, Walker, died in 1891, and the second son, Emmons, in 1892, immediately after the convention. A rapid succession of personal bereavements in the loss of his two sons and other relatives won for Mr. Blaine the heartfelt sympathy of the nation, those who had been his enemies as well as his friends. The eldest daughter, Alice, who was the wife of Col. Coppinger, also died immediately after the eldest son.

Margaret, the second daughter, was the wife of Walter Damrosch, the celebrated musician, and the youngest, Harriet, is still unmarried. The youngest son, James G. Blaine, Jr., has been an occasion of considerable anxiety to his parents. Mr. Blaine's homes in Washington and Augusta have always shown his wife's and his own good taste for rare engravings, fine books and the good things of life. The hospitality there dispensed was bountiful and celebrated.

Mr. Blaine's health had been failing for many months, but the shock of his death at eleven o'clock on Friday, the 27th of January, 1893, was none the less a shock to the country. He was conscious until a short time before dissolution, and he passed away peacefully.

The Senate, the House of Representatives and the Supreme Court immediately adjourned upon receipt of the news out of respect for the dead statesman. The President issued a proclamation commanding that all government offices be draped in mourning. The interment was at Oak Hill cemetery, near Washington, on the afternoon of January 30th. The distinguished company did honor to the memory of the dead man in the church services before the funeral. His grave is almost adjoining that of John Howard Payne, the author of "Home, Sweet Home."

The absence of this great man from the political arena of the United States leaves a void, felt alike by his friends and his opponents. Mr. Blaine was the culmination of ability in American politics. The fact that he did not reach the goal of his ambition does not lessen the truth of that statement. He left behind him the memory of a man who had the largest personal following, due to his personal qualities, of any man of his generation.

CHAPTER CX.

A Mid-Pacific Revolution.

HOW THE INHABITANTS OF THE SANDWICH ISLANDS THREW
OFF THE BURDENSOME YOKE OF MONARCHY—THE EM-
BASSY TO THE UNITED STATES—SEEKING AN-
NEXATION TO UNCLE SAM'S FAMILY
OF COMMONWEALTHS.



UT in the middle of the Pacific ocean, 2,100 miles west of San Francisco, is a group of islands of volcanic origin that in the latter days of the administration of President Harrison have made a great stir in the world. They are named the Sandwich islands, or in the language of the natives, the Hawaiian islands. In the month of January, 1893, the people of the islands decided that they would like to become members of Uncle Sam's big family of states, and so, in just about as much time as it takes to tell it, they threw off the rule of the queen who was their monarch, and sent a commission of prominent citizens to Washington to make application to the United States government for that favor.

It is necessary to know something of the history of the islands to understand the conditions that existed there, and why the people wanted to lose their position as an independent government to become a very small and unimportant portion of our big one. They were discovered by Captain Cook, the celebrated navigator, January 18, 1778, and a year later he was murdered at the same place by the natives. At that time, and always before, there had been a host of petty chiefs, who divided the rule among themselves, and were very oppressive in their government. But in 1782, a great warrior, Kamehameha I, conquered all the chiefs, and made himself king of the islands. He founded the realm that continued until this revolution, though there have been, at times, small rebellions against the reigning monarchs. Some years ago a constitution was

granted by the king, and since then the islands have been governed as a limited monarchy. They have become more and more civilized of late years, until at the time of the revolution the influential men were almost all of American birth or descent. Many Americans and Europeans have gone there and have engaged in business that was of advantage to the islands as well as to themselves. The wealth, as well as the brains, were mostly in their possession. So when the queen, Liliuokalani, endeavored to force upon the people a new constitution taking away from them many of the dearest rights they had, and practically disfranchising the foreign-born citizens, they naturally objected. Inasmuch as almost every one was on the same side, there was no one to oppose the revolution, and so it was over in a few hours. The queen was deposed, and leading citizens formed a provisional government to hold power until a permanent one could be formed. There was no blood shed, and no rioting or confusion. What a wonderful thing it would have been if the revolution that freed the colonies from England in '76 could have been accomplished as easily. There happened to be a ship of the United States navy in the harbor of Honolulu, the capital city, and sailors were landed from her to assist in the preservation of order.

The history of the trouble is as follows: On January 12th, the Legislature passed a bill granting a right to a lottery, and it is said that the great Louisiana Lottery Co. was interested in it. The queen's cabinet objected to this, but the queen gave notice that she intended to control matters. Indeed, for some months the queen had shown a disposition to ignore her cabinet. The ministers were not in accord with her, and several cabinets had been formed in quick succession. The queen showed a desire to rule absolutely, and this tendency was noticed by the Hawaiians with alarm. Finally, on January 14th, the queen started the revolution by attempting to abrogate the constitution and promulgate a new one framed in the lines of her own policy of absolute power. The Legislature was in session, and the cabinet, immediately on the queen promulgating her new constitution, took charge of the government, and the Legislature acted without friction, proclaiming a provisional government and selecting Judge W. B. Dole as President. Immediately, all the powers, save England, recognized the new administration. The final completion of the revolution was on the 17th of January. The four men who constituted the head of the provisional government were of the highest character, one having resigned his place in the Supreme Court to assume the position.

Immediately upon installing the new president, a commission was appointed to proceed to Washington and begin negotiations for annexation with the United States. While the commission is speeding across the twenty-one hundred miles of ocean, and three thousand miles of land

that separate Honolulu from our own capital at Washington, let us go back to the islands for a still more definite understanding of their relations with the United States.

The new president of Hawaii is a native of the islands, and is the son of a female missionary. He is well known and popular, having served in the Legislature many times and in other offices. He is inclined to be a radical, and at the time of his appointment as president, was second associate justice of the Supreme Court of Hawaii. He was about forty-five years of age and well capable of ruling. He was educated in an American college and married an American girl, Miss Cate, of Maine.

Just before the revolution the relations between the islands and the United States had not been entirely satisfactory to the Hawaiians, for the reason that the enactment of the McKinley bill, putting raw sugar on the free list and placing a bounty on American sugar, had a very disastrous effect on the sugar planters. Before the enactment of the McKinley law, the Hawaiians were by special treaty put on exactly the same basis as growers of sugar in the United States, and their product was admitted free of all duty. The McKinley bill put the Hawaiian sugar growers on the same basis as all other foreign growers of sugar, and gave those in the United States the advantage of the bounty. The result was that many of the sugar plantations have ceased to pay, and a number of the planters have tried other tropical products with good success. Annexation would therefore help the islands.

Before the revolution it had been intended to send a delegation here to ask for certain privileges. It was decided to offer to the United States the perpetual cession of the harbor of Pearl river as a coaling station and a navy yard for the United States. This was a gift that the navy department officials of the United States had been exceedingly anxious to secure. In return for this it was decided to ask that the United States allow the entrance of canned pineapples and certain other products of the islands free of duty. But the revolution changed the mission of the delegation and made them wish for entire annexation.

As soon as the news of the revolution reached America, which was not until ten days after it occurred, owing to the fact that there is no cable communication with the islands, our country was all excitement. Citizens eagerly discussed the advisability of granting annexation to our island neighbors. It was thought that the establishment of a protectorate might be better than entire annexation, but the opinion of the country seemed almost unanimous that some arrangements should be made which would retain for us commercial supremacy in the islands.

With no loss of time, the envoys hastened from steamer to train at San Francisco. They boarded the "Overland" flyer, and continued their way to Washington. At every city through which they passed they were

met and warmly welcomed by prominent citizens. The press and people were with them. At Chicago, an effort was made to induce them to wait over for a public meeting and a banquet, but they were unwilling to lose time and refused the cordial invitation.

The five commissioners were Chairman Lorin A. Thurston, and Messrs. Charles L. Carter, Joseph Marsden, W. C. Wilder and William P. Castle. They were accompanied by Mr. Thurston's niece, Miss Mabel Andrews, and the secretary of the commission, Charles Petersen.

Once in Washington the commission lost no time in presenting credentials to Secretary of State Foster and in securing introductions at the state department.

"The first art of diplomacy is silence." This is the sentence which the Secretary of State is credited as having uttered to the commissioners. This meant that time would be required and careful consideration needed before a decision could be reached in this country; and it also meant that during this period of delay it would be wise that they should not take the general public into their confidence as to their methods of procedure. Nevertheless the commissioners were cordially welcomed by the officials at Washington.

The first impression to circulate through the country was that President Harrison and his cabinet advisers favored a protectorate as a preliminary step to annexation rather than an immediate annexation. This hesitancy was in no small part caused by the belief that a movement for an immediate annexation would involve in the first place an extension of the bounty for American sugar to the Hawaiian islands, and in the next place a long discussion in congress as to the treatment of the franchise in the new territory and the abrogation of existing contracts for Asiatic labor.

The form of administration which the leaders of the bloodless revolution most desire was formulated by the commission. They said that something similar to the government of the District of Columbia would be acceptable, that is to say a board of commissioners appointed by the president, having full control of the levying and collection of taxes, the control of police, and the management of the courts.

The idea of a protectorate was abnoxious to the commissioners, and nothing except a treaty of annexation would be pleasing to them. They declared that many of the natives, as well as the population of white blood, are strongly in favor of annexation.

Many papers in Great Britain and Canada made strong protest against permitting the islands to be annexed to the United States, but the British government seemed to take little interest in the matter, and none to the extent of endeavoring to prevent a union.

At the time when this history closes the commissioners were still in

Washington endeavoring to attain their desired union, with great prospect that they would be successful and that before many weeks there would be another territory added to our sisterhood of states, these island gems of the Pacific.

The distance from San Francisco to Honolulu, the capital and chief city of the Hawaiian islands, is twenty-one hundred miles. There is fortnightly communication between the cities by means of the steamers of the Oceanic Line, and seven days are required for the passage. Once in the island kingdom, there is much to interest the tourist. Everything is so different from what we in the United States have been accustomed to that the contrasts are very remarkable. The islands were discovered by Captain Cook, the great navigator, in 1778, and one year later he was killed by the natives on the spot where he first landed. At that time and until 1782, the islands had been divided among many petty chieftains, but in the latter year Kamehameha I. conquered the islands, organized the government and founded the monarchy that has remained up to this day. He continued to rule for thirty-seven years and died in 1819, in the eighty-second year of his age. After him came five succeeding rulers of the same family and the same name. And then in 1872 the line became extinct with the exception of one heir, Mrs. Bishop, who refused the crown. Thereupon an election was held and a new branch of royalty was created. The queen, who was deposed in the recent revolution, was named Liliuokalani, and she is the third of the new royal family. Her predecessor was King Kalakaua, who died in San Francisco in January, 1891, while on a voyage for the benefit of his health. The queen has not been popular in her realm. Her residence, a beautiful palace known as "Iolani," is situated in beautiful grounds adorned with trees and shrubbery. Her reign has not been a peaceful one, for the people have been restless under her rule and have incited several rebellions.

There are eight islands in the group, and they lie midway in the Pacific ocean just over the border line of the tropics. Five only of the islands are important—Hawaii, Maui, Oahu, Kauai, Molokai. Three are indifferent and devoted principally to sheep grazing—Lanai, Niihau and Kahoolawe. The aggregate acreage of all of them is about 4,000,000, of which Hawaii embraces five-eighths; in point of population, however, Oahu ranks first, containing more than a third of all the inhabitants of the kingdom. The city of Honolulu is on this island. The climate of the islands is simply perfection; the heat is not excessive and frost never occurs. The rainfall on the east side of the islands is plentiful, but on the other side irrigation is necessary for purposes of agriculture. The aggregate amount of exports from the kingdom for the year 1890 was about \$13,000,000, of which more than \$12,000,000 was in sugar, 130,000 tons, and more than \$500,000 in rice. All of the exports of the country

went to the United States except five tons of sugar and one hundred pounds of coffee. This illustrates in a striking manner how closely their business and industrial interests have been allied to us.

The largest sugar plantation of the island is at Sprecklesville on the island of Maui, the Hawaiian Commercial Company, otherwise Claus Spreckles, proprietor. It is located on an arable plain at the foot of the mountain slopes, close to the sea, and was formerly an arid waste. The capital stock of the company is \$10,000,000, and the outlay of enormous sums of money in irrigation and of energy and labor has brought it into great fertility. Twenty-five thousand acres of it is suitable for cane, and one can travel for fifteen miles in one direction through the sweet growing crop and yet not exceed the limits of the plantation. The mill on the premises is capable of producing one hundred tons of sugar per day. There are thirty-eight incorporated companies and thirty other companies engaged in sugar production in the islands, with an aggregate capital of \$32,000,000, of which \$26,000,000 are American. The labor of the plantation is Chinese, Japanese and Portuguese.

The Sandwich islands have been more noted for their volcanoes than for anything else. And they to-day possess the largest of the active volcanoes of the world—the crater of Kilauea on the island of Hawaii; on the same island are also Maunaloa and Maunakea. Another scourge that has given the islands fame is that of leprosy, which until a few years ago was widely prevalent throughout the kingdom. At that time a certain district was reserved for the lepers on the island of Molokai, and all who were suffering from that disease were sequestered there. Now as soon as any one becomes a victim to it, he is immediately sent to Molokai to join the sad colony. The exiles now number about twelve hundred. They are given every comfort of life except health. The location is all that could be desired and the climate salubrious and healthful. The average life of a leper is five years. Ten per cent. of all the revenues of the kingdom is annually devoted to the amelioration of their unhappy state. They are provided with churches, hospitals and neat homes, and a hundred horses are kept for their use and pleasure.

The natural attractions of the islands are unsurpassed anywhere. There are no dangerous animals, and no reptiles of any kind. Vegetation is luxuriant; tropical fruits of all kinds grow in abundance, and the birds are musical of note and gorgeous of plumage.

The people themselves, or rather the thoroughbred Hawaiians, are of dark, copper-colored complexion, and ordinarily of fine physical development. The hair is jet black, thick and straight, and the eyes dark. The men are, usually, rather good-looking, but the women, as a rule, are coarse, slipshod, and lacking in personal charms. Some of the half and quarter castes and later dilutions, however, are beautiful. The race is of

a happy-go-lucky disposition, passionately fond of everything that affords amusement, and enthusiastically averse to any kind of toil. The love of music and dancing is one of the strongest proclivities of the race. The people are honest, generous, and possess an abiding faith and confidence in man. The quality that they have appeared most to lack is personal morality and modesty, but one is inclined to believe that their taint in this direction comes from the rascally sailors, who have made a rendezvous of the islands since the time of their discovery. This is rapidly being corrected, and the country may now be said to be improving in this as well as in every other phase of its life. There seems to be no reason, if its political wisdom is shown, why annexation and the receiving of the Hawaiians into close relations as a part of our country should not be desired by every American.

CHAPTER CXI.

The Crowning Glory of the Century.

THE WORLD'S COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION AT CHICAGO—OUR
COUNTRY'S HISTORY 400 YEARS OLD—THE MAGNIFICENT
SITE AND BUILDINGS—OBJECTS OF INTEREST



THE idea of holding an international exposition, in commemoration of the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America, was first actively discussed in 1885. In the competition before Congress, several cities urged their claims to be designated as the location of such an enterprise. Chicago was successful and at once began to take active measures to insure the success of the undertaking. The site of the World's Columbian Exposition, as it was called, comprised Jackson Park and Midway Plaisance.

In October, 1890, the committee on grounds and buildings appointed a chief of construction, and on December 8, 1890, a consulting board was formed under the chairmanship of the chief of construction. In November, 1890, the consulting board entered upon the duty of devising a general plan for the Exposition, taking as a basis for the study of the problem the classified list of exhibits which had been prepared by a committee charged with that duty. The list, together with the advice received directly from the committee dictated the number and the size of the buildings which would be required to meet the intention of the Act of Congress. The larger part of the site selected was a swampy, sandy flat, liable at times to be completely submerged. Other parts were low ridges, which had originally been sand bars deposited by the waters of the lake. Upon some of these ridges there were trees, of stunted habit, because of the sterile and water-soaked soil in which they had grown, and the extreme exposure to frigid winds from the lake, to which they had been subject to a late period every spring. The idea was that there should be a system of navigable water-ways, to be made by dredging-boats, working inward from the lake through the lowest parts of the site, the earth lifted by the boats to be so deposited as to

add to the area, and increase the elevation of the higher parts, which would thus become better adapted to pleasure-ground purposes, and to be used as the sites for the buildings of the Exposition. This idea was carried out and after infinite labor the swamp was transferred into a fairy land of wonderful beauty.

The Administration Building was one of the most perfect examples of architectural form ever erected. This building was 262 feet square and was erected at a cost of \$550,000. It was richly ornamented in bas-reliefs, frescoing and sculpture. Around the base of the dome, on the corners of the pavilions, and at the entrances were groups of statuary, emblematic of the arts and sciences. The building was divided into four grand pavilions known as A, B, C and D, occupied from the ground to and including the third floor by the offices of the Exposition, express, telegraph and telephone companies, and bank and press headquarters. Above the third floor were four tunnel passages leading from one pavilion to another.

The Palace of Fine Arts, now the Field Columbian Museum, is Grecian-Ionic in style, and is a pure type of the most refined classic architecture. The structure is oblong, and is 500 by 320 feet, intersected north, east, south and west by a nave and transept 100 feet wide and seventy feet high, at the intersection of which is a dome sixty feet in diameter. The building is 125 feet to the top of the dome. The transept has a clear space through the center of sixty feet, being lighted entirely from above. On either side are galleries twenty feet wide and twenty-four feet above the floor. The collections of sculpture were displayed on the main floor of the nave and transept, and on the walls both of the ground floor and of the galleries were ample areas for displaying the paintings and sculptured panels in relief. Around the entire building are galleries forty feet wide, forming a continuous promenade around the structure. The main building is entered by four great portals, richly ornamented with architectural sculpture, and approached by broad flights of steps. The walls of the loggia of the colonnades are highly decorated with mural paintings, illustrating the history and progress of the arts. The frieze of the exterior walls and the pediments of the principal entrances are ornamented with sculptures and portraits in bas-relief of the masters of ancient art. The general tone or color is light gray. The construction is necessarily fire-proof. The main walls are of solid brick, covered with staff, architecturally ornamented, while the roof, floors and galleries are of iron.

Approaching the Fisheries Building from either front, one was impressed with its beauty and general grace of construction. The tall dome towered high above the gables of the main structure, while the small turrets that adorned the dome and main entrances appeared in

pleasing contrast with the red tiled roof, columns and arches. Flanked on both the east and west by small pavilions and connecting arcades, the whole presented an architectural view of great magnificence. The infinite detail of fishes and other aquatic animals with which the columns, arches, and friezes were decorated in bas relief, was gratifying to the eye, and the skill and ingenuity displayed by the ornamentation were as remarkable for originality as for fitness.

The forest resources of the world were exhibited in the Forestry Building, which was one of the most interesting and unique structures on the grounds. It was made of wood and with a colonnade composed of tree trunks sent from almost every State in the Union. For instance: Arkansas furnished pine, white oak, red oak and sassafras; California, sugar pine, redwood and trunks of the young sequoia; Delaware, red cedar, white oak and white ash; Kansas, burr oak, hickory, huckleberry, sycamore and walnut; Minnesota, white pine, sugar maple, ash, oak, cottonwood, spruce, box cedar, tamarack and elm, and Wisconsin, pine, white oak, basswood, elm, birch and spruce. The dimensions of this building were 200 by 500 feet, with a central height of sixty feet.

The Horticultural Building was 114 feet high on the inside, and 187 feet in diameter, with a gallery extending around a well or open center. Four parallelogram-shaped rooms, technically called curtains, each 270 feet long, connected the dome and central pavilion, forming two interior courts. The style was Venetian renaissance, the order Ionic, with a broad frieze decorated with cupids and garlands. A highly ornamented vestibule, with statues on either side, representing the awakening and sleep of flowers, formed the main or grand entrance. Opposite the main entrance and flanked on either side along the lagoon with long rows of mammoth vases filled with flowers and trailing plants was a succession of steps leading down to a broad landing, for picturesque gondolas and other water craft. The dome was sufficiently large to admit of the construction of a miniature tropical mountain and an extensive cave underneath. Several cascades were formed upon the sides of the mountain, and the sparkling waters dashed from rock to rock under the foliage of the largest palms, tree ferns and other tropical plants that were ever collected in a conservatory. Australia, Central and South American countries, Africa and every nation in Europe, the West Indies, China, and the largest conservatories in the United States, contributed to the collection of plants which were exhibited in the dome and east curtains. Japan, among many rare plants, furnished some dwarf trees more than 100 years old and only a few feet in height. The dome gallery contained exhibits of herbariums, florists' supplies, fruit and flower plates, and was used as a promenade from

which to look down on the plant displays. The west curtains contained the pomological exhibit.

The Live Stock Pavilion covered an area of over three acres. The general arrangement of this magnificent pavilion was the same as the ever famous Coliseum at Rome, the architecture of the former being Romanesque, and the latter purely classic of the Doric order. The building was constructed of framework covered with staff. The seating capacity was 6,000. The center was used as a large arena for the purpose of parading live stock.

The Machinery Building, or Palace of Mechanic Art, was 850 feet long and 500 feet broad, and with the Machinery Annex and Power-house cost about \$1,200,000. The building was spanned by three arched trusses, and the interior presented the appearance of three railroad train-houses side by side. The naves were lighted and aired from above by large monitor roofs, and in the center were three domed roofs, each covering an open space 125 feet square.

The Manufactures Building was the mammoth structure of the Exposition. It was the largest building in area ever erected on the western hemisphere and the largest under a roof in the whole world. Despite this fact, every foot of available space was taken, and it is even asserted by conservative judges that more than double the space could have been assigned to exhibits. This building was three times larger than the Cathedral of St. Peter, in Rome, and four times larger than the old Roman Coliseum, which seated 80,000 persons. The central hall, which was a single room without a supporting pillar under its roof, had in its floor a fraction less than eleven acres, and the entire building could comfortably seat 300,000 people. There were 7,000,000 feet of lumber in the floor, and it required five carloads of nails to fasten the 215 carloads of flooring to the joists. The exterior outline covered an area of nearly thirty-two acres, and, including galleries encircling the interior, afforded in the aggregate forty-four acres of exhibiting space. This vast structure was covered with an arched roof of steel and glass, affording ample light and ventilation. It measured 1,687 by 787 feet. Within the building a gallery 50 feet wide extended around all four sides, and projecting from this were 86 smaller galleries, 12 feet wide, from which visitors could survey the vast array of exhibits and the busy scene below. The building was rectangular in form, and the interior was divided into a great central hall, 380 by 1,280 feet, surrounded by a nave 107 feet wide. The long array of columns and arches, which its facades presented, was relieved from monotony by very elaborate ornamentation. In this ornamentation female figures, symbolical of the various arts and sciences played a conspicuous and very attractive part. The exterior of the building was covered with staff, treated to represent marble. There were four great entrances, one

in the center of each facade. These were designed in the manner of triumphal arches, the central archway of each being 40 feet wide and 80 feet high. Surmounting these portals was the great attic story, ornamented with sculptured eagles 18 feet high, and on each side above the side arches were great panels with inscriptions. At each corner of the main building were pavilions forming arched entrances, designed in harmony with the great portals.

The building over the portal of which was written "Mining," attracted marked attention. It was the first exposition building distinctively devoted to this industry, its walls containing the first separate and comprehensive mineral and metallurgical exhibit. It is one of the new developments and marvels of an exposition that furnished so many surprises and wonders. Upon a great floor 700 feet long by 350 feet wide and covering over five and a half acres, was constructed a massive and solid structure, relieved and embellished with all the symmetrical and classic forms and rich ornamentations known to architecture. An arcade consisting of a loggia on the main floor and a deeply recessed promenade on the gallery floor occupied the main fronts of the building. It was intersected at the center by an enormous arched entrance 56 feet high and 25 feet broad ending at the corners in square pavilions surmounted by low domes. Its architecture, of early Italian renaissance, with a slight touch of French spirit, together with the enormous and floating banners, invested the building with the animation that should characterize a great general exposition. The interior design was of no less interest than the exterior. The roof rested upon ten great cantilever trusses so that the floor was practically unencumbered, there being only two rows of iron columns on either side. This was the first instance of the application of the cantilever system to building, and the result was a structure signally adapted to exhibition purposes, the gain in space being quite large. The cost of the building was \$250,000.

The Transportation Building was unique in its architecture. Its gorgeous exterior decoration and its superb golden door identified it at once. Its polychromatic front bore the name of illustrious railway and marine inventors and sculptured groups idealizing the different forms of transportation. The north and south entrances were also elaborate and bore the individual statues of many famous men. A peculiar feature of the vast annex was the fact that it was found necessary to carry the intramural electric and elevated railways over its roof. The descent from these aerial stations was at the southwestern corner of the building. The main building measured 960 feet long by 250 feet deep. Along the central avenue, or nave, the visitor saw facing each other scores of locomotive engines, highly polished, rendering the perspective effect of the nave both exceedingly novel and striking. Add to the effect of the exhibits

the architectural impression given by a long vista of richly ornamented colonnades, and it may easily be seen that the interior of the Transportation Building was one of the most impressive of the Exposition. The building was exquisitely refined and simple in architectural treatment, although very rich and elaborate in detail.

The Agricultural Building was erected at a cost of \$1,218,000. The main entrance was 64 feet wide, with Corinthian pillars 50 feet high and five feet in diameter. The rotunda was 100 feet in diameter surrounded by a great glass dome. The dimensions of this building were 800 by 500 feet.

The Electrical Building was 345 feet wide and 700 feet long. The general scheme of the plan was based upon a longitudinal nave 115 feet wide and 114 feet high, crossed in the middle by a transept of the same width and height. At each of the four corners of the building there was a pavilion, above which rose a light, open spire or tower, 169 feet high. Intermediate between these corner pavilions and the center pavilions on the east and west sides, there was a subordinate pavilion bearing a low, square dome upon an open lantern. The building had an open portico extending along the whole of the south facade.

The Anthropological Building was the last of the Exposition buildings to be constructed, when it was found to be necessary to obtain more space for the section of education in the Manufactures and Liberal Arts Building. The Ethnological department was then assigned to the new building. The building was 415 feet long and 255 feet wide, with a gallery 48 feet wide on all four sides. Thirty thousand square feet on the southern end of the floor was given up to the sections of hygiene and sanitation and of charities and corrections belonging to the Liberal Arts. The remainder of the floor was occupied by the archæological and ethnological exhibits of foreign countries, State boards and individuals, and the collections made by the assistants of the department who were sent to various parts of North, Central and South America to make special explorations and researches under the direction of the chief of the department.

The Woman's Building was a beautiful building, built in the style of the Italian renaissance. The principal facade had an extreme length of 400 feet, the depth of the building being half this distance. The main grouping consisted of a center pavilion flanked at each end with corner pavilions connected in the first story by open arcades in the curtains, forming a shady promenade the whole length of the structure. The first story was raised about ten feet from the ground line, and a wide staircase led to the center pavilion. This pavilion, forming the main triple-arched entrance with an open colonnade in the second story, was finished with a low and beautifully proportioned pediment enriched with a highly

elaborate bas-relief. The corner pavilions, being like the rest of the building, two stories high, with a total elevation of 60 feet, had each an open colonnade added above the main cornice. Here were located the hanging gardens, and also the committee rooms of the Board of Lady Managers. A lobby 40 feet wide opened into the rotunda, reaching through the height of the building and protected by a richly ornamented skylight. This rotunda was surrounded by a two-story open arcade, as delicate and chaste in design as the exterior, the whole having a thoroughly Italian court-yard effect, admitting abundance of light to all rooms facing this interior space. In the second story, above the main entrance and curtains, were located ladies' parlors, committee rooms and dressing rooms, all leading to the open balcony in front, and commanding a splendid panorama of almost the entire ground. The whole second floor of the north pavilion enclosed the great assembly room and club room. The first of these was provided with an elevated stage for the accommodation of speakers. The south pavilion contained the model kitchen, refreshment and reception rooms.

In accordance with the Act of Congress, approved April 25, 1890, the Executive Departments of the United States Government made an interesting and creditable display, under the auspices of a board of management and control, composed of government officials appointed from the several departments. The Government Building was classic in style and bore a strong resemblance to the National Museum and other government buildings at Washington. Its leading architectural feature was a central octagonal dome 120 feet in diameter and 150 feet high. The south half of the Government Building was devoted to the exhibits of the Postoffice department, Treasury department, War department, and Department of agriculture. The north half was devoted to the exhibits of the Fisheries Commission, Smithsonian Institute, and Interior department. The State department exhibit extended from the rotunda to the east end, and that of the department of justice from the rotunda to the west end of the building.

The Naval exhibit was unique. A structure, which to all outward appearance was a full sized modern battleship, was erected on piling on the lake front in the northeast portion of the grounds. It was surrounded by water and had the appearance of being moored to a wharf. The structure had all the fittings that belong to the actual ship, such as guns, turrets, torpedo tubes, torpedo nets and booms, with boats, anchors, chain cables, davits, awnings, deck fittings, etc., together with all appliances for working the same. Officers, seamen, mechanics and marines were detailed by the Navy department during the Exposition, and the discipline and mode of life on our naval vessels were completely shown.

Besides the buildings erected by the various foreign governments,

there were many other structures of great beauty. Chief among them may be mentioned the Casino, Music Hall, Children's Building, Convent of La Rabida, Festival Hall, Leather and Shoe Trades Building and others. Nearly every State was represented by a building of its own.

The attractions of the Midway Plaisance were as follows: Diamond Match Company's Pavilion; Fire and Guard Station; International Dress and Costume Company; Electric Scenic Theater; Libbey Glass Company's Works; Irish Village; Japanese Bazaar; Javanese Village; German Village, Museum and Garden; Zoopraxographical Hall; Streets of Cairo; Persian Palace; Eiffel Model Tower; Ferris Wheel; Vienna Café, Algeria and Tunis Theater and Restaurant; East India Bazaar; Panorama Volcano Kilauea; American Indians; Chinese Theater and Joss House; Captive Balloon; Brazil Concert Hall; Ostrich Farm; Sitting Bull's Cabin; Irish Industries; Bulgarian Curios; Adams Express Company Pavilion; Colorado Gold Mining; Log Cabin of 1776; Venice-Murano Company; Hagenback's Animal Show; South Sea Islanders; Vienna Bakery and Theater; Panorama Bernese Alps; Turkish Village, Bazaar and Mosque; German Wienerwurst House; Moorish Palace; Moorish Mosque; Model of St. Peter; Glass Spinning; Ice Railway; French Cider Press; Fire and Guard Station; Austrian Village; Dahomey Village; Lapland Village and National Hungarian Orpheum.

The Exposition buildings were dedicated October 21, 1892. On May 1, 1893, the gates were thrown open to visitors, who thronged from all over the world to witness the wonders of the "White City."

CHAPTER CXII.

President or Governor?

ADMINISTRATION OF PRESIDENT CLEVELAND—THE NEW TARIFF
THE INCOME TAX—THE COAL STRIKE—THE COXEY
MOVEMENT—THE PULLMAN BOYCOTT—THE
SILVER QUESTION.



HE inauguration of President Cleveland was celebrated with great pomp and ceremony March 4, 1893. The day was very cold, but the city of Washington was filled with a throng of visitors, eager to welcome the incoming chief executive. The installation of Vice-President Stevenson took place in the Senate chamber. President Cleveland took the oath of office on the eastern portico of the Capitol in the presence of the people, where he delivered his inaugural address. The new President was then driven to the reviewing stand in front of the White House to witness the inaugural procession. Here he stood for five hours receiving the salutes of the passing regiments and the cheers of the enthusiastic spectators. In the evening the inaugural ball took place in the Pension Bureau building. On the following day President Cleveland announced his Cabinet, composed of the following men of note: Walter Q. Gresham, of Illinois, Secretary of State; John G. Carlisle, of Kentucky, Secretary of the Treasury; Daniel S. Lamont, of New York, Secretary of War; Hoke Smith, of Georgia, Secretary of the Interior; Hilary A. Herbert, of Alabama, Secretary of the Navy; J. Sterling Morton, of Nebraska, Secretary of Agriculture; Richard Olney, of Massachusetts, Attorney-General, and Wilson S. Bissell, of New York, Postmaster-General. Mr. Bissell afterward resigned and was succeeded in office by William L. Wilson, of West Virginia. The death of Secretary of State Walter Q. Gresham, which occurred May 28, 1895, necessitated another change in the cabinet. President Cleveland placed Richard Olney at the head of the State Department and Judson Harmon was appointed Attorney-General.

The administration of President Cleveland was conscientious and consistent. He advocated a just, but firm foreign policy and a strict adher-

ence to the principles of sound currency and tariff reform. He believed that the civil service laws should be applied to every branch of service, including even presidential appointments—that merit, not political influence, should govern all selections for office.

Recognizing the importance of immediate legislation, President Cleveland called an extra session of Congress, which assembled on August 7, 1893, to consider laws relating to the currency and tariff reform. William L. Wilson, of West Virginia, was made chairman of the house committee of ways and means, with instructions to draft a bill which should represent the principles of the Democratic party on the question of tariff reform. The Wilson bill, as it was termed, was introduced into the House on January 8, 1894. It was opposed by the Republicans on general principles, but its provisions for free wool, coal, lumber, sugar and iron ore were denounced by Democrats representing States whose interests would be effected by the enactment of such a law. Although the bill advocated the removal of 38 per cent. of the duties upon imports and the inclusion of manufactures and farm products in the free list, it passed the House by a vote of 204 to 140. The bill went to the Senate on February 2, where it again encountered the opposition of prominent representatives of both parties. The matter was then referred to the finance committee of the Senate and a new bill was prepared.

The Senate tariff bill opposed the principles of free raw material and advocated a duty of 40 cents a ton on coal and iron ore, a tax of one cent a pound on raw sugar, with a protection of one-fourth of a cent per pound on refined sugar. The rates in the metal, glass, earthenware, cotton, woolen and agricultural schedule were increased, while salt, lumber and wool were left on the free list. On July 3 the bill passed the Senate by a vote of 39 to 34 and went to the conference committee of the two Houses. The members of the committee, however, failed to agree on the sugar, coal, iron ore, woolen and cotton schedule, but after some discussion a settlement was reached and the House accepted the Senate bill.

President Cleveland had already declared himself opposed to the measure on the grounds that it neither represented the principles of the Democratic party nor tariff reform. In a letter to Mr. Wilson, he said:

"We have in our platform and in every way possible declared in favor of the free importation of raw materials. We have again and again promised that this should be accorded to our people and our manufacturer as soon as the Democratic party was invested with the power to determine the tariff policy of the country. The party has now that power. We are as certain to-day as we ever have been of the great benefit that would accrue to the country from the inauguration of this policy, and nothing has occurred to release us from our obligation to secure this advantage to our people. It must be admitted that no tariff measure

can accord with Democratic principles and promises or bear a genuine Democratic badge that does not provide for free raw materials."

On August 15, the bill was sent to the President, who allowed the measure to become a law without his approval.

The reduction in the tariff naturally caused a decrease in the country's revenues and necessitated some form of taxation which would balance this loss. The proposal to levy a tax on incomes in the United States was no sooner made than it became the subject of wide discussion by all interested in the measure. Secretary John G. Carlisle in a report to Congress said:

"It is a generally recognized fact that capital in the form of money, bonds and other evidences of debt does not usually by reason of its tangible and transitory nature bear its due proportion of the burden of taxation under the revenue laws of the several States and municipalities as compared with real estate and visible personal property, and while no discrimination should be made against it, whether it be represented by corporate or other investments, there appears to be no good reason why the contributions for the support of the public service generally should not be equalized as nearly as possible by including this kind of property in the Federal revenue system."

After the provisions of the Wilson bill were made public, the ways and means committee took under consideration an income tax law. Chairman Wilson was personally opposed to such a measure, but agreed to it when adopted by a majority of the committee. In an article published in the *North American Review*, Mr. Wilson gave his views regarding this form of taxation. After enumerating the advantages of the income tax under the English system, he said:

"But despite these strong arguments in favor of an individual income tax, and the unquestionable equity of its general theory, there are grave counter reasons which rise up before a legislator who seeks to embody it in our tax system. Aside from the very natural objection of those who might have to pay such a tax, its administration is necessarily accompanied by some exasperating demoralizing incidents. Our people have so long and so generally been free from any public scrutiny into their personal incomes, and even from any personal contact with Federal tax collectors that they resent the approach of either. Moreover, like the personal property tax, which is so universally evaded, the personal income tax would easily lend itself to fraud, concealment and perjury."

The income tax bill, passed by both Houses of Congress and approved by the President, became a law. Suits were then brought to test its validity, and the courts declared the law unconstitutional. The matter was then carried to the Supreme Court, which reversed the decision of the lower court, but ruled that all incomes derived from rents, or

State and municipal bonds, were exempt from taxation. Under this decision, the business man, manufacturer, and salaried employe were forced to pay a tax of 2 per cent. on all incomes over \$4,000 per annum, while landlords and bondholders were exempt from the tax, so far as their incomes were derived from rents or bonds. By a subsequent decision, however, the law was declared unconstitutional.

On March 29, 1894, President Cleveland vetoed the seigniorage bill, "an act which directed the coinage of the silver bullion held in the Treasury and for other purposes."

On August 13, 1894, the Senate ratified a new treaty between the United States and China, and on November 22, a treaty was signed between this country and Japan.

The years 1893 and 1894 were marked by industrial depression and financial stringency. The latter year was made memorable by a series of most disastrous labor disturbances.

On April 21, 1894, 152,000 miners left their work, and thereby closed nearly all the bituminous coal mines in the country. The miners asserted that the causes of the strike were low wages and lack of steady employment. The mine operators, on the other hand, claimed that the "hard times" had lowered the price of labor and decreased the consumption of coal over 25 per cent. Mine owners were forced to cut prices in order to catch trade, until the price of coal at the pit was often as low as 75 cents a ton. In less than a month after the outbreak, 175,000 miners had joined the strike, and the bituminous coal region was the scene of unrestrained violence. The owners of mines called upon the local authorities to protect their property; desperate battles took place between the strikers and armed deputies. In many places it was found necessary to call in the aid of the militia. Order was finally restored, and on June 8, a conference of miners and operators was called to meet at Columbus, Ohio, to arrange a scale of prices. An agreement was reached and the strike ended. In the meantime the miners had lost \$12,500,000 in wages, while the loss in the various departments of business amounted to \$20,000,000.

The most unique effort to aid the long-suffering cause of labor was attempted by J. S. Coxey of Massillon, O. He proposed to organize "industrial armies" at different parts of the country, which were to simultaneously march to Washington. These organizations were formed for the purpose of urging upon Congress the necessity of legislation in the interest of labor. According to Mr. Coxey and his followers, a law ought to be passed providing for the issue of \$500,000,000 in legal tender notes to be expended by the Secretary of War at the rate of \$20,000,000 a month, for building roads throughout the country. Another law was to be urged which would give every State, city or village the right to deposit in the

National Treasury non-interest-bearing bonds to an amount not exceeding one-half the assumed valuation of its property; the Secretary of the Treasury would then be obliged to issue legal tender notes to an amount equal to the face of the bonds. On March 24, Coxey and his army of 100 men left Massillon, O., for Washington. At the same time other industrial armies were formed in other parts of the country. The Coxey contingent reached Washington, where the leader and two of his lieutenants were arrested, tried and imprisoned. Other armies which had assembled at various points were disbanded and the movement ended in complete failure.

The coal strike had hardly ended when another labor outbreak occurred which threatened disaster to the business interests of the entire country. This was the strike of the employes of the Pullman Palace Car Company, followed by the boycott of the Pullman cars by the American Railway Union.

The business depression, which affected all departments of trade and industry, had made it necessary for the Pullman company to reduce the wages of its employes. The workmen became dissatisfied and a strike was threatened if wages were not advanced. Nearly all the operatives resided in the town of Pullman, in houses owned by the company, but the reduction in wages was not followed by a proportionate decrease in rents, which were collected each month of the employes. After paying his rent, including gas and water bills, the unfortunate workman often found himself without the means of providing food for his family. In answer to the demands of the employes for an impartial investigation of their troubles, Mr. Pullman replied that the company had always endeavored to benefit the people of Pullman; contracts for car construction had been accepted at great loss in order to afford steady employment; the company's repair shops at Detroit had been closed, and a system of internal improvement had been carried on, which necessitated an expenditure of \$160,000. Mr. Pullman further stated that the company actually paid the city of Chicago each month \$500 more for water, than it collected of the employes; moreover, the average amount collected monthly for gas consumed was only \$2, while houses often rented as low as \$6 per month. The grievances of the workmen were investigated, although no increase of wages was ordered. When the company learned that the men had decided to strike, notice was given that the works would be closed indefinitely. This occurred May 12, 1894.

The American Railway Union held its national convention in Chicago on June 15, with Eugene V. Debs as president. A committee was appointed to confer with the officials of the Pullman company. The refusal of the company to recognize the American Railway Union was followed by an order to boycott all Pullman cars, with instructions to

begin on the Illinois Central road and to extend to all others in the country using these cars. This practically meant a strike on every railroad that should not refuse to haul the Pullman cars until that company should consent to submit the demands of its employes, for increased wages, to arbitration. This was called a "sympathetic strike," but it failed to arouse the sympathy of those who were sincerely interested in the cause of labor. Switchmen, brakemen, firemen, trainmen, engineers and conductors were forced to participate in a movement which ended in failure. The railroad companies were under contract with the Pullman company for a long term of years, and were obliged to carry out their agreements, hence they could not accede to the demands of Debs.

On the evening of June 20, the St. Louis express, on the Illinois Central Railroad, was stopped at Grand Crossing, where it was surrounded by a crowd of excited strikers. The engineer and fireman were forced to leave the train because it contained Pullman coaches. One hour afterward nine trains were blocked at Grand Crossing and traffic was finally suspended. The following day the strike extended to other roads and the transportation of mails was abandoned. By the 29th of June railroad business had come to a standstill at Los Angeles, Cal., St. Louis, Mo., Terre Haute, Ind., Cairo, Ill., Pueblo, Colo., Toledo, O., Omaha, Neb., Dubuque, Ia., Topeka, Kas., Duluth, Minn., Fargo, N. D., and all intermediate points. The situation rapidly became more serious and the tracks on many roads were blocked by overturned freight cars. Disturbances were of frequent occurrence in and about Chicago, and the sheriff was called upon to furnish armed deputies. On July 2, a Cabinet council was held at Washington and on the following day the regulars at Fort Sheridan were ordered out for duty at Chicago. The southwestern portion of the city was in the hands of the mob and there were frequent skirmishes between the rioters and the soldiers. Gov. Altgeld sent a letter to President Cleveland, demanding the withdrawal of the Federal troops from the State of Illinois. The President replied that abundant proof had been shown that the presence of the regulars was not only proper but necessary in order to preserve peace.

On July 6, the mob set fire to 775 freight cars in the yard of the Pan Handle road, a loss of \$500,000. At Hawthorne 211 freight cars, loaded with merchandise valued at \$80,000 were destroyed. On the same day five regiments of State troops were ordered to Chicago. Gov. Altgeld again sent a long and vindictive letter to President Cleveland, protesting against the presence of the regulars, on the grounds that the State was fully able to protect its own interests, and that the ordering out of Federal troops was an unwarranted act on the part of the President. The following letter, characteristic of the chief executive, was sent in reply:

EXECUTIVE MANSION, Washington, D. C., July 6th.

The Hon. John P. Altgeld, Governor of Illinois, Springfield, Ill.:

While I am still persuaded that I have neither transcended my authority nor duty in the emergency that confronts us, it seems to me that in this hour of danger and public distress, discussion may well give way to active effort on the part of all in authority to restore obedience to law and to protect life and property.

GROVER CLEVELAND.

On July 7, a conflict took place in Chicago between the mob and Company C, of the Second Illinois Regiment. The soldiers were forced to fire, killing two persons and fatally injuring several others. During the day 690 cars and engines were burned or wrecked, 96 cars were overturned, 9 buildings were burned and 26 men were either killed or injured. On the following day martial law in Chicago was declared, by a formal proclamation issued by President Cleveland.

On the same day an encounter took place at Hammond, Ind., between the rioters and regulars, in which one of the mob was killed and seven were wounded. On the 9th the Second Brigade of State troops was ordered to Chicago. Wrecking trains were sent out to clear the tracks of overturned cars and wreckage. On the 10th Debs was arrested on a bench warrant, issued by Judge Grosscup, of the United States District Court, charging him with conspiracy. An unsuccessful effort was then made to prolong the strike by calling out the Knights of Labor. This was practically the last day of the strike. Order was gradually restored and the regular business of the railroads was resumed. The actual cost of the strike is unknown. The loss in Chicago alone is estimated at \$7,000,000.

A great many prominent people died in Europe during the year 1894. The President of the French republic, Marie Francois Sadi-Carnot was assassinated at Lyons, June 25, and Alexander III., Emperor of Russia, died at Livadia, Greece, November 1. Count Ferdinand De Lesseps, the noted engineer; James A. Froude, the historian; Louis Kossuth, the Hungarian patriot; Anton Rubenstein, the pianist; Edmund Yates, the journalist; Rosina Vokes, the actress, and Robert Louis Stevenson, the novelist, died during the year. America was called upon to mourn the death of Oliver Wendell Holmes, the poet and essayist, which occurred in Boston, October 7; George William Childs, the journalist, died in Philadelphia, February 3, and David Swing, the clergyman, died in Chicago, October 3. The list of illustrious dead includes the names of Constance Fenimore Woolson, the novelist, William F. Poole, librarian of the Newberry Library, Chicago; James McCosh, ex-president of Princeton College; G. P. A. Healey, the artist; Frank Hatton, the journalist; Gen. N. P. Banks, the soldier; James M. Bailey, the humorist, and others.

The discussion of the currency question now completely occupies the public mind. The free coinage of silver is advocated by many, on the

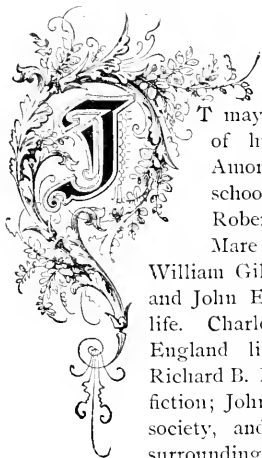
grounds that the prevailing financial depression is a direct result of the demonetization of silver in 1873. On the other hand, it is urged that a reversal of the former monetary system, which recognizes gold as the standard of value, will result in retarding the return of the country to business activity.

The signs of growth and progress are already manifest in all departments of trade and industry. The clouds of doubt and uncertainty, which now darken the sky, only presage the dawn of another era of prosperity for the American people.

CHAPTER CXIII.

Of The Making of Good Books, Etc.

THE LITERATURE OF THE LAST THIRTY YEARS.



It may be well at this point to take up the thread of history which concerns national literature. Among the novelists who preceded the present school, and who are now almost forgotten, are Robert Montgomery Bird, John Neal, William Mare (an historical novelist), Sylvester Judd, William Gilmore Simms (a leading Southern writer), and John Esten Cooke, also a delineator of Southern life. Charles F. Briggs wrote several novels of New England life, partly humorous in their character; Richard B. Kimball chose New York City for his field of fiction; John P. Kennedy preferred to portray old-times society, and Hermon Nelaille chose the sea as the surrounding for his characters.

The novel which has had the greatest popular success of any American book is Harriet Beecher Stowe's "Uncle Tom's Cabin." As a literary success, it was remarkable, and as a moral factor, it has doubtless had more direct and practical influence upon the people than any book ever written. It was published in 1852, and won more converts to the anti-slavery cause than all the sermons preached or laws enacted. Strongly dramatic and deeply fascinating in plot, "Uncle Tom's Cabin" still retains its popularity, although the great abolition cause that it championed has long since triumphed. Every new edition finds ready sale, and no book published in America has been so universally read.

"The Wide, Wide World," of the sisters Susan and Anna Warner, published in 1850, has been one of the very successful American books. Catherine Sedgwick, the author of "Hope Leslie;" Marion Cole Harris, who wrote "Rutledge," and Maria S. Cummins, the author of "The

Lamplighter," are among the first women who did graceful and creditable work in America. "Grace Greenwood" (Sarah J. Lippencott) and Fanny Fern" (Mrs. James Parton) were the first to introduce the style of light and pleasant magazine sketching, which has since become so popular.

Of the American essayists, Ralph Waldo Emerson is the most distinguished. He was born in Boston in 1802, the descendant of eight generations of clergymen. Born with a religious habit of thought, he still imbibed the healthy radicalism of the age, and became a philosopher whose purity and breadth of thought made him the rival of any thinker, ancient or modern. He was one of the founders of the Transcendental movement, in which Margaret Fuller, Bronson Alcott, Thoreau and the younger Channing were also associated. Henry D. Thoreau was a recluse, who lived in Concord, on the shores of Walden Pond. He kept apart from men, and devoted his life to the study of nature. Amos Bronson Alcott was a representative Transcendentalist, and the only man in this country who cultivated the art of imparting knowledge by "Conversations." These he held for many years in various parts of the United States. George William Curtis is the writer of a number of graceful essays. George Ticknor is the author of an elaborate history of Spanish literature. Edwin P. Whipple is considered the most faithful of American critics. George S. Hillard and Charles E. Norton are known for their artistic books of Italian travel. One of the American classics of travel, "Two Years Before the Mast," is from the pen of Richard H. Dana, Jr. Thomas Starr King has devoted himself largely to descriptions of the White Mountains. Mrs. Lydia Maria Child has written two books devoted to the science of religion, and she was the first woman to contribute to the anti-slavery literature of the country. Donald G. Mitchell wrote "Dream-Life" and the "Reveries of a Bachelor," two very delightful books. F. S. Cozzens devoted his pen to descriptions of Nova Scotia. Henry W. Herbert made field sports the subject of his interesting books. Henry and William Reed wrote literary and historical criticisms. Joseph C. Neal and George H. Derby wrote humorous books. Dr. Edward Robinson produced a work on Biblical research, which is considered a standard in all countries. Richard Grant White is known for his excellent critical works and his essays on language. He, as well as Horace Howard Furness, have edited editions of Shakspeare in this country.

Dr. J. G. Holliand has been popular as an essayist, a novelist and a

poet. His name is connected with the founding of *Scribner's Magazine*, of which he was the editor-in-chief until his death, in 1881. To him the mass of American readers are deeply indebted for the great impetus that he gave to periodical literature. "Bitter Sweet" and "Kathrina," two beautiful poems, by Dr. Holland, achieved great success. With the exception of Longfellow's "Hiawatha," "Kathrina" has had a larger sale than any other American poem. Henry T. Tuckerman wrote many pleasant things, in somewhat the same style as Dr. Holland.

The writers on law and medicine in this country have been very numerous. The "Commentaries on American Law," by James Kent, and the "International Law," of Henry Wheaton, deserve special mention.

The dictionaries of Noah Webster and Joseph E. Worcester; the philological works of William D. Whitney, George P. Marsh, Francis J. Child, S. S. Halderman, E. A. Sophocles, F. A. March and James Hadley; the ethnological works of H. R. Schoolcraft, C. C. Jones Jr., and H. H. Bancroft, are valuable contributions to our literature. H. H. Bancroft is also known as the most careful and painstaking historian of the great Western coast, Alaska and the Northwestern States.

Asa Gray and John Torrey have written books on botany. Nathaniel Bowditch, Elias Loomis, Benjamin Pierce, Simon Newcomb and Richard Proctor are known for their mathematical and astronomical publications.

Books on birds have been written by J. J. Audubon, Elliot Cones and T. M. Brewer. John Burrows has written lovingly of birds and many other subjects of nature, in a manner so charming as to acquaint the least scientific with the secrets of American woods and fields.

Louis Agassiz, Edward Hitchcock, and James D. Dana are among those who have written geological treatises. Henry C. Carey, and Dr. Theodore D. Wookey have written well on political economy and international law, but the recent discussions concerning the tariff have brought into existence a large number of writers on kindred subjects. Arnold Guyot is noted for his physical geographies. W. J. Hardee, Winfield Scott, W. H. Halleck and George B. McClellan have published books on military science.

Since the War of Secession, Grant and Logan have published large histories concerning that period. The last history of the Rebellion is by Rossiter Johnson. Horace Greeley and Alexander H. Stephens are the fullest in their account of the anti-slavery contest, which preceded and

attended the war. Dr. John W. Draper has attempted to give an unpartisan record of the politics of the time. Vice-President Wilson's "Rise and Fall of the Slave Power in America" is a valuable history. General Sherman has written his reminiscences of the war.

Our later poets have shown, in some cases, eccentricities which have won a somewhat undeserved praise for them in England, and not a little furious criticism in America. Whitman and Miller are two of our most erratic poets. Joaquin Miller is known for his "Songs of the Sierras," and other poems of Western life. Walt Whitman deals neither in rhyme nor metre, but writes democratic rhapsodies for the people.

Bayard Taylor is not known alone as a poet, though he wrote impassioned and glowing verses. His numerous books of travel are charming and valuable, and his novels present accurate pictures of American life. He also made a valuable translation of both parts of "Faust."

Richard Henry Stoddard is the author of nine volumes of short poems, highly finished in style and full of true feeling. He is, perhaps, the most scholarly of our living poets. In the face of sorrow and bitterness, he has cherished his faith in the highest ideal of poetic art, giving to the world many beautiful lyrics, some of which have been scattered far and wide over the country. His poem on the death of Thackeray is to be highly praised. "The King's Bell," and "Wratislaw" prove him to be a narrative poet of high rank. One of his most popular poems is "A Wedding Under the Directory."

John Godfrey Saxe has occupied a position in American literature somewhat similar to that of Hood in English literature. The English language is a thing with him to be used as a plaything, and his poems are deliciously witty and airy.

John Townsend Trowbridge is an excellent writer of juvenile stories. Though his novels have interest, he is remembered most frequently for his stories for boys. Another popular writer of juvenile stories is "Oliver Optic" (W. T. Adams).

Francis Bret Harte is a unique writer, who has portrayed with unequalled wit and pathos, life in California. Mr. Harte's society poems are graceful, and his prose burlesques are really excellent. John Hay is a popular writer of dialect verse. Charles Godfrey Leland (Hans Breitman) is also known largely by his dialect verses. Charles Halpin was a poet capable of being both amusing and tender, and Will Carleton has long been popular for his homely verses on Western farm life.

Edgar Fawcett is an accomplished writer of the Swinburnian school.

THE STORY OF AMERICA.

He has devoted himself to literature for the last fifteen years, and has been most prolific, both of prose and verse. His "Fantasy and Passion," "Song and Story" and "Romance and Revery" represent part of his poetry. In addition to his poetry and sketches, Mr. Fawcett has published a number of novels.

Thomas Bailey Aldrich, journalist, poet and novelist, has done many exquisite pieces of work and is remarkable for his versatility. His ballad of "Baby Bell" is an especially dainty poem. Holding first rank among the poets of America, Mr. Aldrich has also entered many other fields of literature, in all of which he has excelled.

Edmund Clarence Stedman first attracted attention by a brilliant social satire, called "The Diamond Wedding." Since then, he has built up, by patient and careful work, an honorable and enviable place as a poet. His style is highly polished, yet forcible. His warlike ballad, "How Old Brown took Harper's Ferry," will live long after similar poems touching the Civil War are forgotten.

The Piatts, John James and his wife, Sarah M. Bryan, are poets of a delicate and refined order. Paul H. Hayne, of Georgia, has written many beautiful sonnets, and holds a foremost place among poets of genuine feeling and earnest aim. In the South, where he was long the leading poet, his memory is greatly loved.

Thomas Buchanan Read, who wrote "Sheridan's Ride," published several volumes of poems. "Drifting," a delicate bit of verse, is widely known. Mr. Read was an artist of great talent, and spent many years of his life in Florence, Italy. Forsythe Willson, the author of "The Old Sergeant," and Elbridge J. Cutler, are among the writers who embalm recollections of the war. George Arnold, who died at an early age, was a pleasant writer of Bohemian verse.

Richard Watson Gilder, editor of the *Century Magazine*, is a leader of a small band of genuine poets. He writes sonnets of rare delicacy. His "New Day," "The Poet and His Master" and collected "Poems and Lyrics" will rank among the American classics. His poems have the true musical rhythm and breathe a spirit of lofty aspiration.

George Parsons Lathrop is a writer of musical verse, and his wife, who is a daughter of Nathaniel Hawthorne, is well known in the literary world. Mrs. Lathrop's brother, Julian Hawthorne, is one of the best known of living writers. His books have many excellent characteristics, but suffer in contrast with his father's wonderful works.

Sidney Lanier was a Southern poet of remarkable promise. His untimely death cut short a brilliant career.

William Dean Howells occupies a prominent place as the leader of realistic fiction in America. He began his literary career as editor of a small newspaper. He first won a wide reputation by his "Italian Journeys" and "Venetian Life," two books of exquisite literary style. He was one of the editors of *The Nation*, and afterwards chief editor of the *Atlantic Monthly*. He has published a number of novels which have attained wide popularity. They are considered the best type of American fiction. Mr. Howells portrays life with a photographic minuteness which is tedious to those who admire the dramatic novel, but his style is admirable.

Henry James, is painstaking and artistic, but he lacks the fine humor which distinguishes Mr. Howells. Though he writes on American life, it is not representative American life, and while his art may appeal to the intellect, he does not succeed in touching the heart.

Edward Eggleston, an Indiana author, has written invaluable novels of backwoods life.

Elizabeth Stuart Phelps is a writer of remarkable short stories and of novels of a religious type.

E. P. Roe is a novelist who has a wide circle of readers, but whose books lack artistic value. He made his reputation upon "Barriers Burned Away," a story of the Chicago fire.

H. C. Bunner, the editor of the comic weekly, *Puck*, has won recognition as a graceful writer of *vers de société*. His "Airs from Arcady" are bright and clever. Maurice F. Egan and George Edgar Montgomery are among the rising versifiers. Charles Nordhoff, the author of "Cape Cod Stories" and a volume on California, deserves mention as an entertaining writer. Thomas Dunn English wrote the lines of "Ben Bolt," which are popular in song. Dr. William A. Hammond is the author of a number of very creditable novels. Theodore Winthrop is known through "Cecil Dreeme" and "John Brent," two fresh and racy stories. Hjalmar Hjorth Boyesen (who, though not born an American, is practically one) is the writer of charming Norwegian stories, and W. H. Bishop has won a reputation by his sketches of travels.

James Whitcomb Reilly is an Indiana poet, who has dealt with homely subjects in a peculiarly felicitous manner. His dialect poems rank with the best that have ever been produced. His last volume of poems has met with great success.

Among the women who have written good short poems are Margaret J. Preston, Elizabeth Akers Allen, Rose Terry Cooke, Nora Perry,

Lucy Larcom, Celia Thaxter and Helen Hunt Jackson. Mrs. Jackson wrote a remarkable novel, "Ramona," which was warmly received, and she made a lasting reputation by her "Century of Dishonor," which dealt with the Indian question. Ella Wheeler Wilcox has written two volumes of poetry, which, though they lack literary precision, are very popular.

Louise May Alcott, a daughter of A. B. Alcott, the Transcendentalist, is the best writer of juvenile stories. Her "Little Women" is the most widely read of any American book for the young. Harriet Prescott Spofford has written several novels in a rich and sumptuous style. Her many short stories have never been collected. Mary L. Booth and Martha J. Lamb have contributed to historical literature.

Literature as a profession was, until recently, little followed in the South. William Gilmore Simms was one of the first to produce any novels with a local coloring. The institutions and traditions of Southern life did not foster literature as a profession. The men who had leisure and genius preferred the career of the statesman to the rather precarious profession of the man of letters. J. P. Kennedy wrote "Horse-shoe Robinson" and "Swallow Barn," two books containing faithful pictures of the South, but their author was, primarily, a lawyer and a politician. Beverley Tucker wrote a novel which Poe pronounced "the best American novel." There were a few verse writers like Philip Pendleton Cooke and Henry Timrod, but Simms' prophecy that there would never be a Southern literature under slave-holding aristocracy proved true. After the war, the profession of letters began to be popular. John Esten Cooke was among the first to write "for bread, not fame," and he procured both. Three poets upheld the literary claims of the South, but they have all passed away now. They were Father Ryan, the poet-priest, and Paul Hamilton Hayne and Sidney Lanier, both of whom have been previously mentioned in this chapter.

To-day there is a most important school of Southern writers, several of whom have achieved brilliant success. They are nearly all young men and women, who belong to the new era since the war. George W. Cable, who stands at the head of the Southern authors, was born in 1844. At an early age he was compelled to support himself, and served in a number of clerical positions. At nineteen, he entered the Confederate army. While in the army he devoted every available moment to the study of Latin and the higher mathematics. When the war was over he returned to his former home in New Orleans. He was absolutely penniless, and began life anew as an errand boy. In 1869,



Benjamin

he was engaged on the staff of the *Picayune*, but being requested to take charge of the theatrical columns, he resigned his position because he cherished scruples against dramatic entertainments. Strangely enough, this prejudice once extended to novel reading. Having entered a mercantile house as accountant and correspondence clerk, he remained with the firm until 1879. During this time he wrote stories which have since been collected under the head of "Old Creole Days." Encouraged by the success of these stories, he determined to devote himself to literature. His first novel, "The Grandissimes," met with a cordial reception. It was followed by the pathetic and tragic story of "Madame Delphine," and "Dr. Sevier" was the last of his long stories. Mr. Cable confines himself to Southern subjects, and he portrays Creole life with a tender sympathy and painstaking realism. In the pages of his novels, pathos is blended with a quaint humor, and his style is original, polished and fascinating.

Richard Malcolm Johnston is well known among the writers of the South, and belongs to the old regime, although closely identified with the new and progressive era. Although a successful lawyer, he gave up his practice to accept the chair of belles-lettres in the University of Georgia, where he remained until the outbreak of the civil war. His first literary venture was the "Dukesborough Tales," and his short stories, strong, humorous and original, are now familiar to every magazine reader. Mr. Johnston deals with Georgia life, and Joel Chandler Harris is another writer who depicts characters from the same State. Mr. Harris first introduced his readers to the mountaineers and moonshiners of middle Georgia, but "Uncle Remus, His Songs and Sayings," a volume of negro folk lore, met with such success that his reputation rests chiefly upon the sayings and doings of "Brer Rabbit" and his companions.

Thomas Nelson Page, a young lawyer of Virginia, made his reputation upon a story called "Marse Chan," a dramatic, pathetic and deliciously humorous little tale. He has contributed a number of stories to the magazines, and is a talented writer. Among the younger verse writers of the South, Robert Burns Wilson is prominent. Lafcadio Hearn, of Louisiana, writes both prose and verse very acceptably.

Among the women of the South there has recently been a wonderful activity, and some of them have won phenomenal success. Miss Grace King, of New Orleans, wrote a short story, "Monsieur Motte," which brought her wide fame. Miss Mary Noailles Murfree made one of the literary sensations of the day. Under the *nom de plume* of Charles

Egbert Craddock, she published several strong stories that won the applause of the critics, and met with an enthusiastic reception. "The Prophet of the Great Smoky Mountains," which has been much admired by every reader, abounds with beautiful and graphic descriptions and is written in a vivid and polished style. Miss M. G. McClelland is the author of a novel called "Oblivion," which is delicate and charming in conception. Miss Frances Courtenay Baylor is another Southern woman who has gained prominence. "On Both Sides" is a sketch that is a witty and clever production. Miss Julia Magruder has given "Across the Chasm" to the public. It is a study of social condition since the war, and is a conscientious effort.

Amelie Rives (now Mrs. Chanler) has risen to literary fame with great rapidity. She became known through a short story called "A Brother to Dragons." Her success was instantaneous, and a drama, a number of short stories, and two novels have appeared in quick succession.

Within the past few years there has been a wonderful and increasing activity in literary work all over the United States, and it is impossible to enumerate half the writers who have done creditable work. William M. Baker, Frank Lee Benedict and J. W. De Forrest are writers of good novels. Mrs. A. D. T. Whitney writes excellent stories for young girls. Mrs. Louise Chandler Moulton has published many clever novelettes. Mrs. Rebecca Harding Davis portrays the sad pictures of life among the lower classes.

Blanche Willis Howard is a writer whose best books are doubtless still to come. Mrs. Francis Hodgson Burnett is the writer of many delightful books, the best of which are "That Lass o' Lowrie's," a novel of life in the Lancashire mines of England, and "Little Lord Fauntleroy," an exquisite book for children. "Little Lord Fauntleroy" achieved an unusual popularity. Thousands of copies of the books were sold and the story was dramatized.

Mrs. Anna C. Muller has written three morbid novels of remarkable strength. Marion Harland (Mary Virginia Terhune) is a popular writer of a mild and homely sort. John Habberton first made his reputation by the publication of "Helen's Babies." Constance Fenimore Woolson is a writer of skillful analytical novels. Mary Hallock Foote, artist and novelist, has devoted both pen and pencil to the more picturesque and refined side of life in the Western mountains. Mrs. Van Rensselaer holds a leading place among the critics of art and architecture. Edith Thomas is one of the best of the younger poets. Maurice Thompson is a talented poet and essayist.

General Lew Wallace will be remembered for two novels of striking originality and power. "Ben Hur," which was first published, is a beautiful story, told in a lofty style and with exquisite taste. "The Fair God" is totally unlike "Ben Hur," yet scarcely less fascinating.

Among the writers who have most recently attracted the attention of the public are W. W. Astor, whose historical novel, "Valentino," takes a permanent place among romantic stories, Henry Harland (Sidney Luska), the author of "As It Was Written," and George H. Picard, whose "A Matter of Taste" and "A Mission Flower" have attracted attention. J. A. Janvier has been successful in a series of short stories called "Color Studies." Laurance Hutton has written a "History of the American Stage" and "Literary Landmarks of London." One of the most gifted of dramatic critics, as well as a graceful poet, is William Winter, who has made valuable additions to dramatic biography.

"Gail Hamilton" (Abigail Dodge) is one of the most forcible of American writers, and devotes her pen to social, political and semi-scientific subjects.

Ruth Ellis (Saxe Holm) will long be remembered as the writer of some exquisite magazine sketches. Mary J. Holmes, Mrs. Southworth and Mrs. Evans may be mentioned because of their popularity; their literary merits are few. No young writer of recent times gave greater promise than Emma Lazarus, who, in criticism, fiction and poetry, was equally strong. She died at an early age.

There has always been an abundance of humor in American literature. Of this, Richard Alsop may be said to be the father. No newspaper is considered complete in America without its humorous paragrapher, and in this direction alone many have won renown. Seba Smith ("Major Jack Downing"), P. B. Shillaber ("Mrs. Partington"), George D. Prentice, George H. Derby ("John Phoenix"), Charles Farrar Browne ("Artemus Ward"), Henry W. Shaw ("Josh Billings"), David Ross Locke ("Petroleum V. Nasby"), Robert H. Newell ("Orpheus C. Keri") and Samuel L. Clemens ("Mark Twain") are among the most noted of our many amusing writers. At present "Bob Burdette," "Bill Nye," Opie P. Read ("The Arkansas Traveler") and Eugene Field are well known. Charles Dudley Warner and Frank Stockton are humorists of a more delicate type.

James Parton is known for his many biographies of prominent men. Edward Everett Hale has written a large number of interesting stories, and is an authority on the early French and Spanish periods of this

country. Thomas Wentworth Higginson is a writer of much versatility. One of his last works is a young folk's history of the United States, which is condensed and readable. John Fiske is known as one of our most brilliant students of modern philosophy. Joseph Cook is one of our most radical thinkers. David Swing is known for his scholarly writings and lectures on religious topics. These last two men furnish a connecting link between writers and lecturers.

For many years Henry Ward Beecher stood at the head of the American platform. Robert Colyer and T. De Witt Talmage are among the most popular divines. In this connection it may be mentioned that in 1875 Cardinal McCloskey, the first Roman Catholic Cardinal in the United States, was consecrated in New York. John B. Gough has won more fame than any temperance lecturer in the country. Dwight L. Moody has been the most successful evangelist. Kate Field, Anna Dickinson, Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Mary L. Livermore and Susan B. Anthony are the foremost women on the lecture platform.

Chief among the tragedians that have made great names in America are Edwin Forrest, Lucius Junius Booth, Edwin Booth, Lawrence Barrett, Charlotte Cushman and Mary Anderson. John McCullough has distinguished himself in heroic plays. James O'Neil has won a reputation in romantic dramas. The Davenports have been a family of excellent actors. Matilda Heron and Clara Morris are the leaders in what is known as the emotional drama. "Lotta" (Miss Crabtree) has the widest reputation of American *soubrettes*. W. J. Florence and his wife and Miss Ada Rehan have excelled in legitimate comedy. Joseph Jefferson is the greatest of American comedians and comes of a long line of actors.

It has not been the habit of Americans to cultivate the arts to any great extent, and they have usually relied upon other countries for their musicians. Among the Americans who have won fame as singers are Clara Louise Kellogg, Anna Louis Cary, Myron W. Whitney, Emma Nevada, Zelda Seguin, Thomas Karl and Jessie Bartlett Davis.

Nor should the influence of the Americans in journalism be ignored. With all its faults, flippancy and blemishes, the American newspaper represents, in enterprise, in fearlessness and in fairness, the highest type of journalism, and for the many delightful writers it has brought forward, if for no other reason, it should be fostered as an institution conferring a distinct and lasting good on the morals of the nation. **Not** to repeat the names of many of the writers already mentioned in this

chapter who have made their first reputation through the press, there is a brilliant list of men and women who have won success upon the newspapers alone. Among these may be mentioned James Gordon Bennett, Sr., founder of the *New York Herald*; Charles A. Dana, of the *Sun*; George D. Prentice, Henry Watterson, John Swinton, Samuel Bowles, Carl Schurz, Horace White, George Alfred Townsend ("Gath") White-law Reid, Joseph Howard, Jr., Olive Logan, Mrs. Margaret F. Sullivan, and many others.

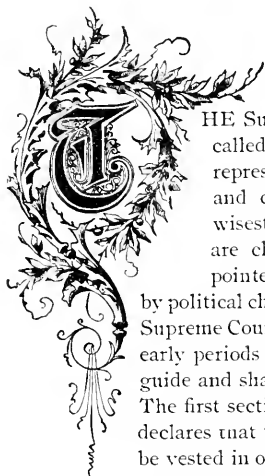
FOR FURTHER READING:

Some successful American books.
 Emerson's Essays.
 O. W. Holmes' "Breakfast-Table Series."
 Longfellow's Poems.
 Bryant's Poems.
 Stoddard's Poems.
 S. Lanier's Poems.
 Mrs. Burnett's "That Lass o' Lowrie's."
 Mrs. Burnett's "Little Lord Fauntleroy."
 Amelie Rives' "Famer Lass o' Piping Peabworth."
 Lew Wallace's "Ben Hur."
 Miss Murfree's "Tales of the Tennessee Mountains."
 Cable's "Tales of Creole Life."
 Miss Woolson's "East Angels."
 Bret Harte's "California Tales."
 The poems of Edith Thomas.

CHAPTER CXIV.

The Supreme Court of the United States.

ITS ORGANIZATION AND DUTIES—THE LIVES OF THE CHIEF JUSTICES.



THE Supreme Court of the United States has been called the balance wheel of the Government. It represents permanence in the constantly moving and changing of the Federal machinery. The wisest and most conservative men of the nation are chosen for its bench, and the members are appointed for life, so that their positions are not affected by political changes. In recent years the proceedings of the Supreme Court have rarely attracted attention, but in the early periods of the Government, its decisions did much to guide and shape the public policy of the United States. The first section of the third article of the Constitution declares that the judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Superior Court and such inferior courts as Congress may, from time to time, authorize. The creation of such courts was consequently one of the first and most important duties of Congress. In September, 1789, the Judiciary Bill was approved. It provided that the Supreme Court should consist of a Chief Justice and five Associate Justices, four of whom should constitute a quorum; but Associate Justices should have precedence according to the date of their commission, or if the commission of two or three should bear the same date, then according to the respective ages of those so commissioned. It divided the United States into thirteen districts, and created a court called the District Court, consisting of one judge for each district. Three circuits were also established, called the Eastern, Middle and Southern Circuits, each one including several of the districts. The office of marshal was created for each district, and each court was empowered to appoint its own clerk.

Immediately after the approval of the Judiciary Bill, President Washington nominated the first Justices of the United States Supreme Court. John Jay, of New York, was named Chief Justice, and William Cushing, of Massachusetts; James Wilson, of Pennsylvania; John Blair, of Virginia; Robert A. Harrison, of Maryland, and James Iredell, of North Carolina, were nominated as Associate Justices. John Rutledge, of South Carolina, was also appointed an Associate Justice, but he did not attend any session of the court until he took his seat as Chief Justice. The name of Edmund Randolph was at the same time sent to the Senate as Attorney-General. These nominations were all immediately confirmed. The salaries of the Justices were fixed by law—that of the Chief Justice at four thousand dollars, and each of his associates at thirty-five hundred dollars.

The first term of court was held in the city of New York in the month of February, 1790, when three Justices assembled in New York, only to find that there was no work for them to do. On the 10th of February court adjourned until the 2d of August, and the Justices went off to attend the circuit courts. The judiciary power, when first created, extended over thirteen States, each State constituting a district. In place of the original thirteen districts, there is now a district for each State, and more than one in several of the larger States. It is the duty of the Justices of the Supreme Court to hold court in its various districts, and this is called circuit duty. In the early days of the Government, several Justices objected to this added labor imposed by judiciary act, and Chief Justice Marshall was of the opinion that it was an unconstitutional requirement. It is said that he suggested to his associates the propriety of declining to sit in the circuit courts. The other Justices agreed with him, but as they had long acquiesced, it was considered wise to continue to perform the duty. So, from the organization of the court until the present day, with the exception of one year, at the close of the Administration of the elder Adams—when the law requiring such duty was repealed, only to be re-enacted—the Justices have continued to perform circuit duty. In consequence of the large number of cases growing out of the late Rebellion, Congress was compelled to pass a measure of relief, and in the year 1869, a number of circuit judgeships were created. The Justices of the Supreme Court were not, however, excused from circuit service, but their duties were so relaxed that each one is now compelled to attend only one term of circuit court in each district every two years. The judiciary power conferred by the Constitution has remained substantially the same to the present day.

In 1793, the court convened in Philadelphia, and there all terms were held until 1801, when the court followed the general Government to the city of Washington, where, in the year 1802, it was permanently located. For several years the Supreme Court found very little business to transact. In 1801, when John Marshall was appointed Chief Justice, the number of cases awaiting adjudication was only ten. For the next five years the average was about twenty-five a year. With the last thirty years, however, the cases have rapidly multiplied, and there have been so many cases on the docket that it has been almost impossible for the Justices to keep pace with the work.

It is just one hundred years (1889) since the first bench of the Supreme Court was appointed, and there have been but eight Chief Justices. The Attorney-General, though more properly belonging to the executive branch of the Government, being a member of the President's council, is, nevertheless, considered one of the Supreme Court. Until 1870, when the office of Solicitor-General was created, his duties were very heavy. The work is now divided, and the Solicitor-General gives his special attention to the court proceedings, while the Attorney-General is occupied in attending to State duties and giving legal advice to the President and heads of departments.

The name of John Jay, the first Chief Justice, should be specially venerated. He was also first Chief Justice of the State of New York. John Jay was born in the city of New York, December 12, 1745. His father was of French ancestry and his mother belonged to one of the oldest families of the Dutch colonies. At the age of seven years, he is said to have been of a very grave disposition and inclined to study. At eight, he was sent to a grammar school, and at fourteen, entered King's College, in the city of New York, where he was graduated in 1764. His father and grandfather had been merchants, but he selected the profession of the law. After being admitted to the bar, he associated himself with Robert R. Livingston, the future Chancellor. But they soon dissolved their business connection. His quiet professional life was broken by the contest between the colonies and the mother country. He was one of the first to speak for freedom. In 1774 he was a member of the convention which met at New York. Though only twenty-nine years old, he was one of the committee to draft an address to the people of Great Britain. This celebrated address is said to have come from his pen, and was composed and written in a room in an obscure tavern. While a delegate to Congress, Jay was elected, in 1776, to a seat in the Colonial Congress. This Congress comprised the best men

of the colonies. After the framing of the new Constitution, he was chosen to the place of Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of New York, which he at once accepted, and Robert Livingston was appointed Chancellor. The Judiciary Bill, organized in the courts, was approved September 24, 1789. On the very day of its approval President Washington sent in the name of John Jay for the office of the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States. In 1794 Chief Justice Jay was sent as special envoy to England to negotiate a treaty, which is known in history by his name. He resigned his position on the bench on his return from England, in 1795, having been elected Governor of New York. He retired from public life when only fifty-six years old, after holding many prominent positions, the best in the gift of the people. He was a pronounced revolutionist, and was one of the leading advocates of independence. He was a man of strong intellect, courageous and yet conservative in his actions. He lived for a quarter of a century in retirement, and died in the eighty-fourth year of his age.

Upon the resignation of Chief Justice Jay, President Washington immediately sent the name of John Rutledge to the Senate as the next Chief Justice. John Rutledge was a man of strong character, chief among the South Carolina revolutionary leaders, and first in station and influence among the many competitors, whose names are treasured in the history of his State. His education was the best that the colony could afford. Having made all the progress that he could in Charleston, he was sent to England, where he finished his education and studied law. He returned to Charleston and commenced the practice of his profession in 1781, being not quite twenty-two years old. He immediately rose to prominence. He commenced life under the most favorable auspices, and in the first part of his career, success met him at every step. He was elected Judge of the South Carolina Court of Chancery in 1784, and held many other responsible offices. The President appointed him during recess of the courts, and he took his seat in the August term of 1795, without having passed the ordeal of the approval of the Senate. On the 15th of December, the Senate refused to confirm his nomination, because he had opposed the Jay Treaty. The refusal to confirm him was due to the opposition of the Federal party, and not to any personal disqualification. Even had he been confirmed, he would not have been able to serve, for while his confirmation was pending, his strong and vigorous mind became unsettled, and his brilliant intellect was henceforth clouded. The Senate had scarcely set its seal of disapprobation upon his name when rumors reached Philadelphia that

he was insane. His malady was partly due to exposure in the service of his country. He died in the summer of 1800. He had many admirable traits. He was a typical Southern statesman, haughty, generous, frank and ardent in nature, yet not always discreet in action.

When the Senate refused to confirm Rutledge as Chief Justice, President Washington sent in the name of William Cushing, of Massachusetts, an Associate Justice of the Court. The Senate immediately confirmed him, but he held his commission only a week, when he resigned, preferring to remain in the less prominent position of Associate Justice. His name is, therefore, not counted among those of the Chief Justices.

Oliver Ellsworth was a Senator in Congress at the time that the Senate refused to confirm Rutledge, and as a member of the Federal party, he naturally voted against the President's nomination. Called to the bar a few years before the Revolution, he had early attained a high position in his profession. At the close of the Revolution, in which he had taken an active part, he returned to his native State to take his seat on the bench of the Connecticut Superior Court. He was born at Windsor, a small village in the interior of the State, April 29, 1745, and was brought up in the simple, frugal manner that prevailed in New England. He concentrated the whole power of his mind upon his chosen profession. He was a man of great application and excellent foresight. When he went to Congress, in 1778, he left the most lucrative law practice in Connecticut.

President Washington belonged to no party; he was, therefore, not estranged from his Federalist friends when they voted against the nomination of Rutledge. Justice Cushing having declined to serve as Chief Justice, Ellsworth was finally selected and promptly confirmed. He served honorably, making many wise decisions. He died November 26, 1807, in the sixty-third year of his age. The inscription on his tomb is a good summary of his character. It reads: "Amiable and exemplary in all relations of a domestic, social and Christian character, pre-eminently useful in all offices he sustained, whose great talent, under the guidance of inflexible integrity, consummate wisdom and enlightened zeal, placed him among the first and most illustrious statesmen who achieved the independence and established the Constitution of the American Republic."

John Marshall, whose judicial career extended over a period of thirty-five years, was the next Chief Justice. He was born in Germantown, Virginia, September 24, 1755. He early showed a remarkable

aptitude for study, and was deeply engaged in his law books when Patrick Henry's thrilling words caused him to leave his studies to become a member of the militia. He fought bravely in the Continental Army, and became captain in a company, under the command of General Washington. He was elected to the Virginia Legislature in 1792, but soon retired to practice the profession of the law. He was afterward called to the service of his country in a number of public offices. President Washington tendered him the office of Attorney-General, but he declined it on account of his large law practice. He was one of the most prominent figures of his time, and, upon the resignation of Ellsworth, Adams sent the name of Marshall to the Senate, where it was immediately confirmed. Many noted cases were tried before the Supreme Court while John Marshall was Chief Justice. The most celebrated was that of Aaron Burr, who was arraigned May 22, 1807. Burr was his own chief counsel, and great legal talent was exhibited at the trial. The greatest interest was awakened in the decision. Chief Justice Marshall delivered it in the most impressive manner, but a great many people were disappointed, and many adverse opinions were expressed. According to the letter of the law, the Chief Justice felt that he could not pronounce Aaron Burr guilty of treason, and he declared that the case against Burr was not proven. He was, therefore, the means of saving Aaron Burr's life. On July 6, 1835, Chief Justice Marshall died. He was a man of well-balanced mind, keen and inflexible in character. It is said that he had no frays in boyhood, no quarrels in manhood.

Roger Brooke Taney, who succeeded Marshall, was born March 17, 1777, in Calvert County, Maryland. His ancestors belonged to the early settlers. He was educated at Dickinson College, Carlisle, and was graduated in 1795. He studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1799. The same year he was a delegate to the General Assembly of Maryland, when less than twenty-three years old. He settled in Frederick and began the practice of law. After serving in the Maryland Senate, he removed to Baltimore, in 1823. While practicing law in Baltimore, he had charge of many celebrated cases in the Federal courts. In June, 1831, he was appointed Attorney-General at the reconstruction of President Jackson's Cabinet. This was a period of stormy debates, heated party discussions and bitter political controversies. The celebrated panic controversy is perhaps the most celebrated. There was a great discussion about removing the deposits from the United States Bank, and Taney was strongly in favor of the measure.

In September, 1833, President Jackson appointed him Secretary of the Treasury, and the 22d of the same month he issued his famous order for the removal of the deposits from the bank, or more correctly speaking, he directed that the collectors of revenue should cease to make their deposits in the bank. The accounts actually in the bank were to be left and drawn out at intervals in different sums, according to Government disbursements. The measure caused much criticism, and the discussion was transferred to the Legislature at the opening of the celebrated "panic session" of Congress, in 1833, the Senate refusing to confirm him as Secretary of the Treasury.

In January, 1835, President Jackson appointed Taney to fill a vacancy on the Supreme Bench, caused by the death of one of the Associate Justices. The Senate declined to act upon the appointment, as Taney had made many political enemies. When Chief Justice Marshall died, in the summer, the President again sent Taney's name to the Senate, this time as the nominee for the vacant place of the Chief Justice. This nomination was not confirmed until March, 1836. Chief Justice Taney took his seat upon the bench in January, 1837. On October 12, 1864, he died, in his eighty-fourth year, after a public life that was full of great events. One of the most celebrated opinions delivered by Justice Taney was the one regarding the celebrated Dred Scott case. This case had awakened universal interest at a time when abolition was one of the great questions of the day. This case decided that a "free negro of the African race, whose ancestors were brought to this country, is not a citizen within the meaning of the Constitution of the United States." This decision created wide-spread discussion and much indignation among Abolitionists. It was, however, technically correct under the Constitution. There was no sadder figure in Washington during the years of the war than that of the aged Chief Justice. He was shunned by the men who were willing to sacrifice their lives for the freedom of the slaves, and he was distrusted by the North. The harsh judgment formed of him then has been softened by time, and he is remembered as an upright and able judge.

Salmon P. Chase succeeded Justice Taney, as Chief Justice of the Supreme Court. He was born in Cornish, New Hampshire, in 1808. He was poor, and he gained his education by hard work and self-denial. He was admitted to the bar of the District of Columbia in 1829. He soon became prominent in politics. He served in the United States Senate from 1849 to 1855, and was Governor of Ohio from 1855 to 1857. Belonging first to the Democratic party, he was the leader of the anti-

slavery element until the rise of the Republican party, of which he was one of the original organizers and most conspicuous members. A leading candidate for the presidential nomination in 1860, he was offered by his successful competitor, President Lincoln, a place in the first Republican Cabinet, in 1861, and left the Senate, to which he had just been chosen for a term of six years. As Secretary of the Treasury, he is noted as having performed the wonderful task of supplying the Government with money to carry on the war. The Bond and Legal Tender acts and the national bank system were, in great measure, originated by him. On the death of Justice Taney, President Lincoln appointed Chase to fill the vacant position of Chief Justice. He had never sat on the bench in any court, and he had not distinguished himself at the bar. He had, however, a thorough knowledge of the Government, and was of a strong, well-balanced mind and a calm, self-reliant disposition. His service on the Supreme Bench was cut short by his death, in 1873, at the age of sixty-five. The Dred Scott decision was set aside by him in a peculiar way. On February 1, 1865, Senator Sumner appeared in the Supreme Court, accompanied by a colored man, and said: "May it please the court, I present John S. Rock, a member of the bar of the State of Massachusetts, and move that he be admitted as a counsellor of this Court." The Chief Justice bowed and said: "Let him come forward and take the oath." The Supreme Court thus acknowledged the equality of the colored man.

Chief Justice Chase was virtually the founder of the great Republican party. He presided over the Senate during the impeachment of President Johnson. His public life was closely interwoven with the early slavery agitation, and his name occupies a high place in the history of the war epoch. Chief Justice Chase was succeeded by Morrison R. Waite, of Ohio, who was appointed by President Grant, in 1874. Justice Waite was born in Lyme, Connecticut, in 1816, and was graduated at Yale College, in 1837. He rapidly rose to an eminent position at the bar of the State of Ohio. In 1849, he was elected to the legislature, and, in 1873, was chosen as a delegate to the convention called to frame a new State constitution for Ohio. Chief Justice Waite has but a short political history. He was a man of sound judgment and conservative views, and discharged the duties of his high office in a creditable manner. On March 23, 1888, he died at his home in Washington City.

On May 1, 1888, President Cleveland nominated Melville W. Fuller to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Justice Waite. Melville

Weston Fuller was born in Augusta, Maine, on February 11, 1833. At the age of sixteen, he entered Bowdoin College, being graduated in 1853. He began the study of law in the office of his uncle, George Melville Weston, at Bangor. He also attended a course of lectures at the Harvard Law School. He began to practice law in 1855, entering into partnership with his uncle, the Hon. Benjamin A. J. Fuller, at Augusta. He was also associated with his uncle in the *Age*, then one of the leading democratic papers of the State. In 1856, he was elected to the common council of Augusta, and became its president. He was also the city solicitor. Although but twenty-three years of age, he showed remarkable talent as a lawyer, and achieved an enviable position at the bar. In 1856, he decided to go west, and he settled in Chicago. There his abilities were speedily recognized, and he at once established a large practice. In his law practice, he was noted for his thorough methods. Although naturally quick in his perceptions, he studied his cases exhaustively. As a fluent, earnest advocate, he has few equals. He was highly esteemed and respected by his associates at the Chicago bar.

He had quite an extensive practice in the Federal courts, and it is a curious coincidence that in the first case heard before the late Chief Justice Waite, Justice Fuller was the counsel. That was in 1874, and after that time he had many cases before the Supreme Court. In 1861, he was a member of the convention called to revise the Constitution of the State of Illinois. A year later he was elected to the Illinois Legislature, in which he served one term. A man of scholarly habits, familiar with several continental languages, and fond of philosophical research, Chief Justice Fuller is a man of broad culture and worthy of the high position to which he was called. His appointment was favorably received by all the legal profession throughout the country.

The organization of the Supreme Court has more than once been changed. Originally consisting of a Chief Justice and five Associate Justices, it was enlarged, in 1807, by the addition of a sixth Associate. The States of Ohio, Kentucky and Tennessee had come into the Union and were made into a new circuit, represented on the bench by Thomas Todd, of Tennessee. In 1837, two more Justices were added, and in 1863, a ninth Associate Justice was appointed to give the Pacific Coast a representative. This was thought to be a good policy at a time when the United States was engaged in the war of the Rebellion. Stephen J. Field, of California, was the appointee. When Justice Catron died, in 1865, Congress was in the midst of its long, serious trouble with

President Johnson. To prevent the appointment of a Democrat in sympathy with President Johnson's Southern policy, a law was passed, forbidding the filling of the existing vacancy, or of any future vacancy, until the number of Associate Judges should be reduced to six. The death of Justice Wayne, in 1867, reduced the number to seven. In 1869, a new law increased the number to eight, and President Grant appointed Justices Strong and Bradley.

The Supreme Court now consists of Chief Justice Fuller and Associate Justices Stephen J. Field, of California; John M. Harlan, of Kentucky; Horace Gray, of Massachusetts; David J. Brewer, of Kansas; Henry B. Brown, of Michigan; George Shiras, Jr., of Pennsylvania; Howell E. Jackson, of Tennessee, and Edward D. White, of Louisiana. The salary of the Chief Justice is \$10,500; the Associate Justices receive \$10,000 each. The officers of the court are: J. C. B. Davis, Reporter; J. H. McKenney, Clerk, and John M. Wright, Marshal.

The sessions of the Supreme Court are now held in the room immediately over the library, a place full of interesting associations, for it was the old Senate chamber. It is in the form of a semi-circle. Its entrance is on the convex side, and the eye of the visitor is first attracted to the judicial bench. Above the bench is a gallery, not now used, but from which thousands have listened to exciting debates in the past. Previous to the erection of the grand wings—which, next to the dome, are the chief attractions of the Capitol—the court-room was located on the ground floor and reached by a dark passageway leading from the center of the building. This room is now the Law Library of Congress, and sometimes called "The Library of the Supreme Court." Its long rows of solid volumes, arranged for the convenience of the Judges, extend around the walls and presents no particular attraction to the public. The librarian's desk is an object of interest. Mahogany, dark with age, it is not handsome, yet it is the desk behind which Van Buren and several other Presidents sat out their terms. To the lawyer of the olden time, the room is full of reminiscences. It was here that the deep, sonorous tones of Webster were heard. It vibrated with the eloquence of Clay, the keen wit of Martin and the brilliant utterances of Wirt, Berrian, Butler and Crittenden.

Most of the seats in front of the Judges' bench are reserved for members of the bar, but on both sides of the room are seats for the public. The sessions of the court commence the first Monday in December. Between 11 and 12 o'clock each day the court enters the chamber, preceded by the marshal, who proclaims in a clear voice: "The Honorable

Chief Justice and Associate Justices of the Supreme Court of the United States." Arrayed in robes of black silk, not unlike the clerical gowns, the Judges follow the Chief Justice and ascend the bench upon his right and left. The bench, however, has long been only a tradition in all our courts. Each Justice of the Supreme Court has a chair to suit his own ideas of what constitutes a comfortable seat. Some of the chairs have high backs and rest the head, some have low backs, some have cushions and some are not upholstered. The Chief Justice sits in the middle of the row and the other Justices are arranged according to the order of their commission. Before seating themselves, the Justices stand a moment in front of their chairs and all bow to the bar. The lawyers return the salute. Then the Judges sit down, the Associates being careful, however, not to occupy their chairs before the Chief Justice. The court is opened by the crier, who exclaims: "Oyez! Oyez! Oyez! all persons having business with the honorable Supreme Court of the United States are admonished to draw near and give attention, for the court is now sitting. God save the United States and this honorable court."

The proceedings of the Supreme Court are impressive and simple. The arguments are delivered in low, conversational tones. There is a tradition that the first Justices wore red gowns, but there is no authority for this. The first Judges of the Supreme Court did not adopt any peculiar fashion of wig as a mark of their office, but the short queue seems to have been worn by all. It is said that when Cushing, who was a member of the original court, arrived in New York and put on the big wig that he had worn on the Massachusetts bench, he was followed up Broadway by a mob of boys. He immediately hastened to a shop and bought a peruke of the style then in vogue.

Every Saturday during the terms of court, the Justices meet in the consultation room and discuss cases. All the cases must be examined by all the Justices, and when a decision is reached, the Chief Justice designates the Justice who is to write the opinion. Opinions are read and approved in the consultation room before they are delivered in open court. If there is a disagreement, the dissenting Justices prepare their opinions. The business of the Supreme Court is divided into two general classes: Cases in which it has original jurisdiction, and cases which come to it from the lower courts. If a citizen of the United States wishes to sue a foreign minister or council, he could not have recourse to any State tribunal, but must go directly to the Supreme Court. The Supreme Court has original jurisdiction in habeas corpus

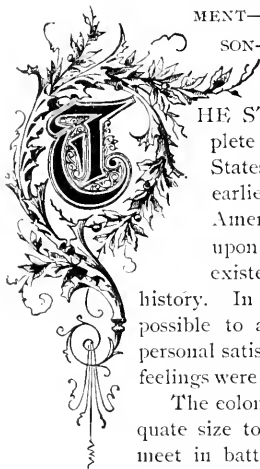
acts affecting persons in jail by the operation of the United States law. A large majority of the cases before the Supreme Court come under the appellate powers; that is, cases decided by the lower courts, and which involve what are called Federal questions, can be appealed to the United States Supreme Court. The largest number of cases decided by the Supreme Court come up from the lower tribunals.

In 1877, the court was called upon to furnish five of its members to the commission appointed to settle the disputed title of the presidency. The Electoral Commission, as it was called, was composed of five Justices, five Senators and five Representatives. The members of the Supreme Court who served were Justices Clifford, Field, Bradley, Miller and Strong.

CHAPTER CNV.

The United States Navy.

ITS OLD ASCENDANCY—THE INVENTION OF THE MONITOR—THE DETERIORATION OF THE NAVY, AFTER THE CIVIL WAR—APPOINTMENT OF THE ADVISORY BOARD—THE NEW NAVY—IMPROVEMENTS IN NAVAL ARTILLERY—ORGANIZATION OF THE NAVY DEPARTMENT—SKETCH OF JOHN ERICSSON—USES OF THE NAVY.



THE STORY OF AMERICA would not be complete without a few words concerning the United States Navy. Pride in its navy was one of the earliest sentiments cherished in the hearts of the American people, and the gallant deeds performed upon the high seas in the first years of the nation's existence will not fade from the pages of its history. In referring to the navy of the past, it is impossible to avoid recalling the individual interest and personal satisfaction that all its members felt in it and such feelings were fostered by the superiority of its ships.

The colonies could not afford to build vessels of adequate size to contend with men-of-war that they had to meet in battle, but the few that they owned were well adapted to meet the small British cruisers, and to capture merchantmen. The frigates of this early day were small vessels, varying from six hundred to a thousand tons. The ships that were built in 1794 were constructed according to the most advanced ideas of the time, and the wooden vessels belonging to the United States and sailing the ocean between 1840 and 1860 were the finest in the world. The old frigate *Congress*, and the sloop *Portsmouth* were noble ships for their time, and models which other maritime nations imitated. During this greatest era of sailing vessels, from 1840 to 1860, steam began to be used, and was introduced as an auxiliary power. The naturally invent



W. H. & C. CO. 1865

WOODEN FRIGATE 1850

BATTLE SHIPS

MODERN IRONCLAD 1865

ive genius of American ship-builders enabled them to adopt the new force so successfully that the United States vessels continued to be prominent for many years as models from which other naval powers might copy. Before sailing vessels were finally abandoned, a number of large ships were built. These ships were a sort of a compromise between steamers and sailing vessels, and they did good service. The *Mississippi*, the *Missouri*, the *Susquehanna*, the *Saranac* and the *Powhatan* belonged to this class. They were launched between 1840 and 1850, and were a credit to the country. The *Powhatan* is now an interesting relic of this transition period of naval architecture. She was built of seasoned live oak, and retained so much of her original seaworthiness that, in 1886, she was still upon the list of the navy. In the last years of her usefulness, the *Powhatan* was employed in transporting relief crews from Aspinwall to Panama.

When those who realized the great future power of steam began to agitate the subject of supplanting sailing vessels by steamers, there was at first a great deal of hesitancy about making such a radical change. It was advocated that the new ships should be provided with full steam power, using sails as an auxiliary, but the old pride in the sailing vessels could not be made to yield at once to the new inventions. It was considered a great concession to admit steam at all, but the United States Government was not the only nation conservative in improving its navy. The other maritime powers pursued the same course, and for many years the United States retained the lead in producing the most creditable types of war ships.

In 1854, Congress passed a law ordering the construction of a new class of frigates. The *Merrimac* was the first of these new vessels to be launched, and she showed a great advance in ship-building. When she was sent to European waters she attracted great attention from foreign naval architects, who immediately copied her. The vessels built after the *Merrimac* model were the best ships of the time in the English navy. In 1858, what was known as the *Hartford* class of large corvettes began to be built. This class comprised the *Hartford*, the *Brooklyn*, the *Pensacola*, the *Richmond* and the *Lancaster*. These ships were imitated by England and France. They were of good speed and were used for cruising in foreign ports. Being built of wood, they required frequent repairs, and they are gradually being struck from the list of commissioned vessels.

The *Kearsarge* belonged to another type of war ship. The *Kearsarge* was built in 1859, and several vessels of the same pattern were

launched just before the war. During the war, vessels were built with a special regard for the purposes for which they were to be used. It was necessary to construct ships as rapidly as possible, in order to protect the coast, and what were known as "ninety-day gunboats" and "double-enders" were hastily built. Merchant steamers were also armed with such batteries as they could carry. This extraordinary increase of vessels, under the pressure of necessity, was not productive of permanent benefit to the navy, and the emergency ships soon disappeared when they were no longer needed. The *Junata* and *Ossipee*, which were launched in 1852, belonged to the *Kearsarge* type and proved capable of good service.

The *Monitor* marked a new era in naval architecture and created a great sensation when it appeared. It was the invention of Captain John Ericsson, and saved the Union fleet at Hampton Roads. Captain Ericsson's inventive mind had early conceived the idea of the revolving turret in connection with the floating battery. In 1854, he had offered the device to Napoleon III, only to have it rejected; but he believed in it, if Napoleon did not, and, in 1861, proposed the novel idea to the United States Naval Department. His proposition met with encouragement, and he was given a contract to build his first vessel, after his long-cherished plan. By an extraordinary display of energy, the vessel was completed in one hundred days, and arrived at Hampton Roads March 9, 1862, just after the iron-clad *Merrimac* had sunk the *Cumberland* and the *Congress*, and was about to destroy the whole wooden fleet. The "cheesebox on a raft," as the Confederates called the *Monitor*, defeated the *Merrimac*, and the complete success of Captain Ericsson's invention revolutionized the navies of the whole civilized world.

The original *Monitor* was lost at sea; but other ships were built after Ericsson's peculiar model. There is no doubt that the *Monitor* was the first of the turreted vessels of the world. Although it made so great an innovation in naval construction, its essential principles were never universally approved by naval architects. The *Monitor* was like a raft carrying a revolving turret. It was constantly submerged by the waves, but its depth of draft insured stability. The circular form of the revolving turret was well suited to deflect the enemy's projectiles. Machinery was employed to move the turret and so point the guns, and there were many other advantages in the new war ship. Since the war, many improvements have been made in the monitors, and they form a conspicuous feature of modern fleets.

The double-turreted monitors, of which the *Terror* is an example,

were subsequently built. They were, unfortunately, constructed of wood, which had already been condemned abroad as an unsuitable material for building war ships. The duration of these wooden turreted vessels was not long, and new vessels of this order, three of which bear old names, were rebuilt of iron.

In 1874, some vessels known as the *Adams* class were built and launched. These vessels were of wood, convenient and handy, and were intended as cruisers in time of peace. The *Marion* class of sloops, launched about this time, were also built of wood. The *Alert* is one of three vessels that were built of iron in 1874. She was constructed as a laudable experiment to improve and change the material for construction. This effort was partly induced by pressure from the iron interest of the country. The change was, however, limited to the small class of diminutive vessels. This improvement in material was not, however, relied on, for in 1876 the *Trenton* was launched. She was built of wood, and represented the latest type of ships in the navy.

For fifteen years after the civil war, the navy steadily deteriorated and its decrepit condition was a reproach to the country. Its old reputation for proficiency and advancement was lost. The Government pursued a temporizing policy and maintained an economical attitude toward it. It was, however, not the intention that the navy should be neglected or abolished. Yearly appropriations were passed for its support, and its needs were frequently presented to Congress. The amounts appropriated were, however, not large enough to permit many new constructions of ships or artillery. Wooden ships were repaired where steel ships should have been built, and cast-iron guns were used where steel guns should have been placed.

The rapidity with which a large fleet of cruising vessels was built and brought together during the civil war, left the impression upon the public mind that, in case of any great emergency, the deficiency in the navy could be hastily supplied. Being favored by peace at home and abroad, it seemed wiser to allow other countries to improve upon naval equipments, believing that when the necessary time came, the United States could profit by the experiments of other maritime powers. After a long interval of indifference in regard to the navy, attention was at last centered on the subject. It was seen how rapidly naval improvements had been made in foreign countries, and how utterly the United States was distanced by the other maritime powers. A growing desire arose to repair the effects of past neglect, and Congress began to move in the matter. The origin of the first effort to improve

the navy dates from June, 1881, when the Advisory Board was appointed to consider and to report on the needs of the navy. This board, on November 7, 1881, decided that the United States Navy should consist of seventy unarmored cruisers of steel. It reported that there were thirty-two vessels in the navy fit for cruisers, and it indicated the character of the vessels that should be built. This board considered unarmored vessels, and did not discuss the subject of armored ships, although it expressed the opinion that such vessels were indispensable in time of war. It was some time before any practical results followed from the action of this board; but in 1883, Congress authorized the building of three steam cruisers and a dispatch boat. These vessels were the *Chicago*, the *Boston*, the *Atalanta* and the *Dolphin*. In the act of Congress, approved in March, 1885, four additional vessels were authorized. These were the first steps toward our new navy.

Up to the time of this new movement, no steel for ships had been rolled in the United States. Construction in American iron plates had been extensively carried on, but steel-plating was imported at great cost to the ship-builder. The question of naval material has always been a most important one. Before 1840, the science of naval construction had not advanced for two hundred years, all ships being built of wood. In the next two decades there was rapid progress, and since the war innumerable inventions have revolutionized ship-building.

The *Dolphin* caused much discussion when first launched, but she has proved a staunch vessel and capable of good service. Though not regarded as a vessel for fighting purposes, she is a ship of the class that is needed in all navies as a dispatch boat. Her advent in the navy marked a new period—the inauguration of the successful manufacture in the United States of American rolled steel ship-plating. The *Dolphin* is the first vessel, whether for naval or for commercial purposes, to be built entirely of steel of home manufacture. The *Dolphin* has proved herself eminently successful, and, with the exception of the steam yacht *Atalanta*, is the fastest sea steamer of her displacement built in the United States.

All the ships of the new navy are built of steel and modeled after well-tested designs. Fifteen of the vessels that were last authorized by Congress are (in 1889) in course of construction or but recently completed. On October 8, 1888, the United States cruiser *Baltimore* was launched at Philadelphia. The *Baltimore* was the first cruiser built for the new navy.

Before the Samoan disaster, the United States numbered ninety-two

serviceable vessels, fifteen of the first class, thirteen of the second class, forty-three of the third class and seven of the fourth class. These carried in all four hundred and eleven guns. Besides, there were twelve migs and a number of wooden sailing vessels.

The new navy, when completed, will comprise of the armored vessels, the *Puritan*, the *Montonomah*, the *Amphitrite*, the *Monadnock* and the *Terror*. All of these are iron-clad and each carry four 10-inch breech-loading guns, besides powerful secondary batteries. Of this class the *Maine* and the *Texas* were the last to be launched. In addition to these armored vessels, there are to be six iron-clad monitors, each carrying fifteen-inch smooth-bore guns. Of the unarmored vessels recently built, the *Chicago*, the *Boston*, the *Atalanta* and the *Dolphin* are all of steel. Last to be built are the *Charleston*, the *Baltimore*, the *Newark*, the *Yorktown*, the *Philadelphia*, the *San Francisco*, the *Concord* and the *Bennington*. They carry altogether ninety-four rifle guns. There has recently been built a steel cruiser, *Vesuvius*, with three 12-inch guns and two second-class torpedo boats. Twenty-eight vessels in all have been added to the navy, and Congress appropriated an additional sum of two million dollars for floating batteries and other naval equipments. With the rehabilitation of the navy an effort was made to dispense with all the old vessels that had lost prestige with the improvement in ship-building. The few wooden ships which carry the flag to other countries were gradually condemned, and it has been estimated that in 1898 the entire wooden navy will have disappeared.

A few words about naval artillery cannot but be interesting. From the time of the invention of cast-iron cannon, in the year 1558, the improvement in artillery was very slow. It was thought that the cannon was such a wonderful invention that it was an impertinence to think of improving it. The first guns were muzzle-loaders. There had been rude attempts at breech-loading, but they were soon abandoned. The guns were of a number of calibres to suit the weight of the batteries on the ships. At the end of the eighteenth century what was known as an eighteen-pounder was the preferred gun for the main-deck batteries of frigates. The eighteen-pounder was the largest calibre used on the ships of the United Colonies of North America in the war of the Rebellion. In the war of 1812, the carronade was adopted as a spar-deck armament of frigates. The advantage of large calibre guns was firmly impressed upon those who occupied themselves with naval matters. As the fleet was developed, the twenty-four-pounders gave way to the thirty-two-pounders, and then the forty-two-pounders were

introduced. In time, the forty-two-pounder was, however, abandoned and the thirty-two-pounder was retained as the largest calibre. In the interval between 1840 and 1845, the thirty-two-pounder was replaced by a gun of the same calibre, of greater weight, called the long thirty-two-pounder. Up to this time, no explosive projectiles had been used with cannon, properly so-called. Mortars were originally used for projecting huge balls of stone at high angles. They were first used in 1624, but the unwieldy weight of the instruments prevented their use in the field. To provide for field use, light mortars were cast, which, when mounted on wheels, were denominated "howitzers." A mortar was never used in naval armament, although it has been employed upon ships engaged in bombarding cities. The success of explosive projectiles did not immediately lead to their application to horizontal firing from cannon.

The shell gun marks an important event in naval artillery. It required many years to bring it into general use, so as to displace the solid-shot gun. The first United States vessel, the battery of which was composed exclusively of shell guns, was the sloop-of-war *Portsmouth*, in 1856. With shell guns, much depended upon the successful working of the fuse of the shell, without which it was but a hollow substitute for a solid shot. The fuses which were used to explode the first bombs were long wooden plugs, bored and filled with powder. This fuse was improved upon, and the United States naval fuse became justly famous, one feature of it being a simple and an effective device called a water-cap, which guarded against injury from water when the shell was fired.

Previous to the introduction of shells, incendiary projectiles had been in use. They were simply intended to set fire to the ships of the enemy, and were not explosive. Hot shot was employed for this purpose, but it was used chiefly in batteries on shore. Within the twenty-five years following the civil war, marvelous advances have been made in artillery. Dynamite has entered into the composition of explosives, and the carrying power of all sort of firearms has been greatly increased. Steel guns have succeeded those of iron, and will be used in the artillery of the new navy. The necessity of a change in the naval artillery of the United States was recognized for a number of years, but it was impossible to obtain steel of domestic manufacture for the new guns. So the men-of-war were compelled to make their cruises abroad with antiquated batteries that were inferior to those carried by ships belonging to other nations.

The torpedo has had a great influence upon naval warfare. Millions of dollars have been spent by European powers in experimenting with this deadly implement of destruction. Its introduction into the artillery of the navy necessitates an additional fleet of torpedo boats. In former times, a fleet consisted simply of battle ships. Dispatch boats were added later. The torpedo had made it necessary to adopt a new class of vessels, called the "torpedo boat captures." The duty of these boats is to destroy the torpedo boats of the enemy. They have great speed and are provided with powerful batteries. The English and French governments were the first to adopt them.

In the early period of its history there was no such branch of the Government as the Department of War. In the first of our great wars (that of 1812) there were only twenty ships in the navy, the organization of which was of the simplest character; but these few ships were the best of their class afloat. There being no organization of policy, each commander of a vessel was compelled to act for himself; thus Hull, Decatur and Porter—all of them young men—made great reputations for themselves by their sagacity and courage. In 1815 a board of three officers was appointed, styled the Naval Commissioners, who had charge of all the work of the department. The board was to perform, under a secretary, all the ministerial duties of his office. In 1845, this board of commissioners was replaced by the bureau system, which, with some changes, has continued until the present time. The bureaus, when first organized, were not qualified to direct the navy. As a working force, the navy was without any direction. There was no responsible officer to superintend the training of officers or the enrollment, assignment and disciplining of seamen. No one was competent to attend to the disposition of vessels or other important work. The effect of this half-reform became evident in 1861, when the department was suddenly plunged into war. No one had the faintest idea what to do or whose business it was to do anything. The chiefs of the bureaus had various duties. One managed the navy yards, another had charge of the construction of ships and a third superintended the building of guns. A fourth supplied provisions. The department had no office organized for staff work; it contained no information upon which to act; it had no machinery by which information could be procured, and at this critical time the department, which had been maintained for sixty years for the service of the country, was found to be entirely wanting in the means of conducting war. At this time, Captain Fox was appointed chief clerk of the Navy Department, and he did a lasting service in

organizing an efficient administration of naval affairs, and in appointing able men to carry out his plans. The number of the war bureaus was increased during the war to eight. In 1882, an important office was added to these bureaus. It was called the Office of Naval Intelligence, and was created for the purpose of collecting and systematizing information concerning the resources and movements of foreign navies. This office was a most important improvement in the management of the naval department.

Any account of naval progress would be incomplete without a sketch of John Ericsson, who gave such an impetus to naval construction by his wonderful inventions. His life was eventful, and the most useful part of it was linked with the history of his adopted country, America. John Ericsson was born in Sweden, in 1803. At eleven years of age, he was appointed cadet of engineers, and two years later was chosen as a leveler on the grand ship canal between the Baltic and the North Sea, planning the work for over six hundred men. In 1820 he became an ensign in the Swedish army, rising rapidly to the rank of lieutenant and captain. In 1825 he invented a condensing flame engine, and the next year went to England to introduce it. Coal, however, did not effect the same results as pine wood, and the invention was not a success. In 1827 Ericsson resigned from the Swedish army and went to England, where he devoted himself to the invention of various devices to be used at sea. In 1829 he invented the steam carriage "Novelty," and beat Stevenson's "Rocket" in a trial contest. In 1833 he invented the caloric engine, which excited the wonder of the scientific world, and resulted, two years later, in the completion of the caloric ship *Ericsson*. In 1839, at the urgent request of Commodore Stockton, of the United States Navy, Ericsson came to the United States and applied his screw propeller principle to the war ship *Princeton*. At the World's Fair in London, in 1851, Ericsson obtained the prize for his numerous inventions. On March 9, 1862, he had the satisfaction of seeing his long-cherished turret plans carried out in the *Monitor*.

In 1869 Ericsson built a fleet of thirty vessels for the Spanish Government for the protection of Cuba. In 1883 he constructed his sun motor as a last gift to science. He contributed many scientific articles to various magazines. Many honors were conferred on John Ericsson by Sweden, and in July, 1888, on the attainment of his eighty-fifth year, he was especially honored by a visit from the representatives of the King of Sweden, who sent him a token of appreciation of his

genius. He was made a Knight of the Royal Orders of Denmark, and was awarded the grand cross of naval merit by King Alphonso, of Spain. In character, Captain Ericsson was singularly quiet and retiring. He was very little known in the neighborhood where he lived, and he was an active man up to the time of his death. One of the excuses he gave for not receiving visitors on his last birthday was that he was "too busy, as he had not yet completed his life-work." One of the curious traits of his character was the total absence of anxiety to personally see the workings of any of his machinery. He was never on board the *Destroyer* but once after she was completed. In fashioning an invention, he worked almost entirely from drawings, and knew just as well how every part of the finished machinery looked, or should look, as though he had handled it a thousand times. Captain Ericsson died March 9, 1889, in the eighty-sixth year of his age.

The United States Navy will henceforth rank with the navies of the other maritime powers. The real use of the navy is to provide the country with means of carrying on war, and it may seem that there is little necessity of a navy in time of peace. It has been said that, inasmuch as the national policy has been peaceful, and inasmuch as the United States has never been allied with any foreign power, there will be no danger of future naval combats. If, however, the Government should neglect the means of national defense, the country is liable to suffer most unexpectedly. No country is secure from an invasion of its rights. Within the last hundred years, the United States has been at war six times, including the French hostilities in 1798. The causes that brought about these wars have been adjusted, but new causes may arise at any time. In the event of an European war (and there are always rumors of some foreign complication) the position of the United States as an unarmed neutral would be extremely uncertain. The navy protects American interests by its moral force as well as its maritime strength. If it were abolished, it would be impossible for the United States to maintain its standing as a great nation.

The duties of the navy, apart from the necessities of war, are numerous. It was stated by the first Advisory Board that vessels of the navy were required for "surveying deep-sea soundings, the advancement and protection of American commerce, exploration, protection of American life and property endangered by war between foreign countries, and service in support of American policy where foreign government is concerned."

The navy has been called the police of the ocean, and it is of

inestimable service in protecting commerce. In exploration, it has sent out expeditions of such a daring character as to astonish the world. When reorganized and fully equipped, it will be once more a credit to the country, and a means by which great things may be accomplished. It is maintained at an annual expenditure of from twelve to twenty millions, and is a costly adjunct to the Government.



GEORGE WASHINGTON.

GEORGE WASHINGTON, the first President of the United States, was born February 22, 1732, in Bridge's Creek, Westmoreland county, Va. His boyhood was spent in healthy athletic sports, in the beautiful country along the Rappahannock river. When he was eleven years of age his father died, and the responsibility of caring for his mother rested upon his youthful shoulders. The remaining members of the family consisted of two half-brothers, Laurence and Augustine, for his father, Augustine Washington, had been twice married. The eldest son, Laurence, in accordance with the custom of the times, was educated at Oxford, and later married a daughter of Lord Thomas Fairfax. This brought young Washington into contact with this famous nobleman, and an intimacy resulted which had a great influence upon his early life. He inherited the estate at Mt. Vernon, and in 1759 married a beautiful widow, Martha Custis. His early military training was acquired during the French and Indian war, and when the colonies declared their independence and war was decided upon, the Continental Congress appointed him Commander-in-Chief of the American Army. On July 3, 1775, he took command of the forces assembled at Cambridge, and when victory crowned the efforts of the Continental Army, the gratified people hailed George Washington as the preserver of his country. He retired to his estates at the close of the war, but when the convention assembled at Philadelphia and framed the Constitution, three years later, he was unanimously elected President of the United States. He served two terms, closing his administration on March 4, 1797. He died, universally lamented, December 17, 1799.

JOHN ADAMS.

JOHN ADAMS, the second President of the United States, was born at Quincy, Norfolk county, Mass., October 19, 1735. Although his father was a farmer, the boy was educated at Harvard College, where he graduated in 1755. He began life as a school-teacher, but soon tired of the life and finally decided to study law. In 1758 he was admitted to the bar and began the practice of his profession in Suffolk county. In 1764 he married Abigail Smith, a young woman of refinement, who had a moral and intellectual effect upon his subsequent career. John Adams was prominent among those who openly expressed their disapproval of English tyranny and oppression. Although that government offered him every inducement he cast his lot with the colonists, and his great power and ability were potent forces in the political difficulties which followed. On June 17, 1774, the Provincial Assembly voted to send five delegates from Massachusetts to the Continental Congress, and John Adams was one of the number. From this time to the close of the Revolution, he devoted himself, heart and soul, to the cause of freedom. He was the first to recognize the sterling qualities of Washington, and was instrumental in having him placed at the head of the American army. Adams was placed at the head of the War Department, and in 1777 he was sent to France, but Benjamin Franklin had already concluded an alliance with that country. In 1783, he, with Dr. Franklin and Mr. Jay, was commissioned to negotiate a treaty of commerce with Great Britain. He returned in 1788, and shortly afterward was elected Vice-President. He was re-elected to that office for Washington's second term, and in 1796 became the chief executive. He lived long enough to see his son President. His death occurred on July 4, 1826.

THOMAS JEFFERSON.

THOMAS JEFFERSON, the third President of the United States, was born in Shadwell, Albemarle county, Va., April 13, 1743. After a preliminary schooling, he entered the college of William and Mary. He was a diligent student and soon became known as a young man of great promise. In 1767 he was admitted to the bar and at once became engrossed in public events. In 1772 he married Martha Skelton, who proved a devoted helpmate. He was elected to the Continental Congress in 1776, when he drafted the greatest document in American history, the Declaration of Independence. On July 4, of that year, this immortal measure was signed by all the delegates and soon afterward Jefferson was appointed by Congress to represent, with Dr. Franklin and Silas Deane, the United States at Paris, but he declined the mission. On June 1, 1779, he became Governor of Virginia, and in 1783 he was re-elected to Congress. The following year he was sent as envoy to France, and for five years he worked with unflagging zeal to bring about a commercial treaty between the two nations. This was previous to the Reign of Terror, and he was one of those who witnessed the destruction of the Bastille, in 1789. He returned to America soon after this and was appointed Secretary of State by Washington, then newly elected President. Political differences between Alexander Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury, forced him to resign his office, which he did in 1794. In 1796, Thomas Jefferson was elected Vice-President of the United States, and in 1800 he became President. He served two terms, and at the close of his second administration he quietly returned to the management of his estate. He died in 1826, honored by the Nation as a man who had devoted his life to the welfare of his country.

JAMES MADISON.

JAMES MADISON, the fourth President of the United States, was born March 16, 1751, in Montpelier, Orange county, Va. He was graduated from Princeton College in 1771, and entered on the study of law. He early attracted the attention of Patrick Henry and Thomas Jefferson, and was appointed a member of the Virginia Council. In 1780, he was elected to the Continental Congress, and served for three years, with distinction. In 1784, he left the National Legislature and entered that of his native State. Meanwhile the country was in the midst of difficulties, and James Madison was one of the first to see that the remedy lay in an efficient national government. He urged the States to send their delegates to Philadelphia in May, 1787, to draft a Constitution for the United States and had the satisfaction of seeing the fruit of his labors in September of that year, when the Convention completed its work. The Constitution was ratified, and James Madison was henceforth to be called its father. He married Dorothy Todd in 1794, and in 1797 he retired from public life to his home at Montpelier. When Thomas Jefferson was elected President of the United States, in 1801, James Madison became his Secretary of State. He was elected President in 1808 and Dolly Madison became the mistress of the White House. In the meantime, England had acted with injustice toward America, and the time came when the country could no longer endure it. On June 8, 1812, President Madison approved the act of Congress which declared war between the United States and Great Britain. He was re-elected President in 1812. At the end of his second presidential term, he returned to his home at Montpelier, where he died June 28th, 1836.

JAMES MONROE.

THE fifth President of the United States was born in Westmoreland county, Va., April 28, 1758. At the age of sixteen he entered William and Mary College. In the meantime the revolutionary war had broken out, and it was only natural that young Monroe should leave college and enter the army. At the battle of Trenton he was severely wounded and promoted to the rank of captain. He took part in many important engagements, and after the victory of Yorktown he entered upon his public career. When only twenty-three years old he became a member of the Virginia Assembly and in the following year was chosen a delegate to the Continental Congress. James Monroe took an active part in those events which lead up to the convention which met at Philadelphia in 1787, and which resulted in the Constitution of the United States. He married Elizabeth Kortright in 1786. He served in the United States Senate for three years and in 1795 was appointed Minister-Plenipotentiary to France. He returned to America in 1796, and soon afterwards was elected Governor of Virginia, an office which he held for three years. When Louisiana was purchased from France, Monroe was sent to promote the enterprise. In 1811 he was again elected Governor of Virginia, but was called from that post by President Madison, who appointed him Secretary of State, when the responsibilities of the War Department also fell upon his shoulders. War with England had broken out and Monroe spent all his energies to secure victory, even pledging his private fortune to supply the needs of the country. In 1816 James Monroe was elected President of the United States and served two terms. He died July 4, 1831.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS, the sixth President of the United States, was born in Quincy, Norfolk county, Mass., July 11, 1767. As a boy he was grave and thoughtful beyond his years. The most momentous event in his youth occurred in 1777, when he accompanied his father on his mission to France. Upon his return to America he entered the junior class at Harvard College and graduated with honor in 1787. He afterwards studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1790. He published, over different signatures, various papers dealing with important questions regarding the relations of America with Europe. It is said that these were the cause of his nomination by President Washington as Minister to The Hague. In 1797, while in England, he married Louise Johnson, daughter of the American Consul at London. He was afterward appointed Minister to Berlin and succeeded in securing a treaty of commerce between Prussia and the United States. In 1802 he was elected to the Massachusetts Senate, and the following year he was chosen United States Senator. In 1808 President Madison appointed him Minister Plenipotentiary to Prussia. He was one of the commissioners who met in Ghent in 1814 to negotiate peace between England and America. Soon after this he received the highest appointment in the American diplomatic service, that of Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to England. Upon his return to the United States he was appointed Secretary of State by James Monroe. In 1824 John Quincy Adams was elected President of the United States. He was elected to Congress in 1831. On February 21, 1848, he was seized with paralysis and died two day afterwards.

ANDREW JACKSON.

ANDREW JACKSON, the seventh President of the United States, was born March 15, 1767, in Union county, N. C. His early life was spent in poverty, his father having died, leaving his widow without means for support. The War of the Revolution took on a brutal form in the Carolinas, and Andrew Jackson was in the midst of the dreadful scenes. When only fifteen, his mother died and he determined to learn a trade. After working for six months, he began the study of law. He was licensed to practice, but as there was no chance in the old settlements, he went to Nashville, Tenn. In 1794, he married Rachel Robards, and the union proved a singularly happy one. In 1796, Tennessee was admitted to the Union, and Andrew Jackson was chosen to represent the State in Congress. He was afterwards elected to the Senate, and when he returned to his constituents he was made Judge of the Supreme Court. In 1812, when war was declared between the United States and England, he offered his services, and in return for his successful campaign against the Creeks, he was promoted to the rank of Major-General in the United States army. He steadily resisted British encroachments in the South and on January 8, 1815, defeated the English forces at New Orleans. In 1821 Florida was ceded by Spain to the United States, and General Jackson was appointed Governor. In 1823, he became United States Senator. In 1824, "Old Hickory," as he was called, was proposed for the Presidency. Notwithstanding his great military successes, Andrew Jackson was regarded as a rough, uncouth soldier. But he had many friends who recognized his many sterling qualities, and who claimed that the office rightfully belonged to him. He was elected President in 1828. His death occurred January 8, 1845.

MARTIN VAN BUREN.

MARTIN VAN BUREN, the eighth President of the United States, was born in Kinderhook, Columbia county, N. Y., December 5, 1782. He was an active, intelligent boy, and until he was fourteen years of age he attended the best schools which the neighborhood afforded. As he did not attend college, he was forced to remain seven years in a law office before he could obtain admission to the bar. In 1803, he began the practice of his profession in his native town, and soon began to take an active part in the political movements of the day. He married Hannah Hoes, in 1807, and removed to Hudson, where he became a successful lawyer and won a wide reputation for marked ability. At the age of thirty, he was elected to the State Senate. Later he became Attorney-General of the State, and also its Governor. In 1821, Van Buren became United States Senator and was in the midst of that memorable canvass which ended with the election of John Quincy Adams to the Presidency. He soon became known as a political leader, and was largely instrumental in securing the election of Andrew Jackson, who rewarded his efforts by appointing him Secretary of State. In 1831, he was appointed Minister to England, but the Senate refused to ratify his nomination. He returned to America only to receive higher political honors, and was elected to the Vice-Presidency in 1832. In that office he presided with such fairness and courtesy that he won the esteem of both parties in the Senate. He was elected President in 1836. In 1844 an effort was made to nominate Van Buren for a second presidential term, but without success. After an extensive tour abroad he returned to his estate in Kinderhook, where he died July 24, 1862.

WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON.

WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON, the ninth President of the United States, was born at Berkely, Va., February 9, 1773. He was carefully reared and went to the best schools of the times, and afterward entered Hampden Sidney College, from which he was graduated with honor. Later he went to Philadelphia, to study medicine, but at nineteen entered the army, having succeeded in obtaining a commission from President Washington. He showed his military ability at once and in a short time was promoted to a Lieutenantcy and in 1792, in an engagement with the Indians, he won the praise of his commanding officer, and was promoted to the rank of Captain. In 1795, he married Anna Symmes, and two years later was appointed Secretary of the Northwest Territory. In 1800, he was appointed Governor of that Territory, which included what now forms the States of Indiana, Illinois and Wisconsin. In 1811, Tecumseh, a famous Shawnee warrior, aroused the Indians, and men, women and children were butchered in cold blood. Gen. Harrison marched against the savages and defeated them at Tippecanoe. In 1814, Gen. Harrison was ordered to seize Detroit, which he did after a sharp battle. In 1816, he was elected to Congress, and in 1819, he went to the Ohio Senate. In 1824 he was one of the presidential electors, and voted for Henry Clay. In 1828 President Adams appointed him Minister Plenipotentiary to the Republic of Colombia. In 1836 he was nominated for the Presidency, but was defeated. Four years later, however, he was elected, but had hardly taken his seat when he was taken ill with pneumonia, and died April 4, 1841.

JOHN TYLER.

JOHN TYLER, the tenth President of the United States, was born in Charles City, Va., March 29, 1790. As a boy he early showed a gift for scholarship, and at twelve years of age entered William and Mary College, from which he was graduated in 1807. He then studied law, and from the beginning was successful in the profession. He soon became prominent in political life, and for five successive years was elected to the State Legislature. When only twenty-six he went to Congress, where he soon attracted attention. About three years previous to his election he married Letitia Christian. He left Congress, and resumed his seat in the Virginia Legislature; and in 1825 was elected Governor of the State. Afterward he went to the Senate, where he became prominent as an opponent to the administration of John Quincy Adams. He was elected to the Vice-Presidency, in 1840, on the same ticket with William Henry Harrison, and soon afterward, upon the death of the President, succeeded to the office of chief executive. It was a very critical time, the annexation of Texas and the question of a National Bank Bill were questions of great moment. The latter measure was twice prepared and carried through Congress, but each time was vetoed by the President. John Tyler was a strong advocate of slavery and naturally excited the antagonism of the North. His administration proved very unfortunate and he made many enemies. In the meantime his wife died and he was glad when his term closed, and he could retire to his estate in Virginia, although he continued to take a profound interest in public affairs. When the Civil War broke out he became a member of the Confederate Congress. He died January 18, 1862.

JAMES KNOX POLK.

JAMES KNOX POLK, the eleventh President of the United States, was born in Mecklenburg county, N.C., November 2, 1795. His father was a farmer, and when James was eleven years of age his family removed to the West and settled in eastern Tennessee. The elder Polk became a surveyor; and when he made his tours throughout the country he took his eldest son James. As a boy he showed an aptitude for study, and attended the common schools of the day, where he acquired the rudiments of an English education. His father placed him in a store, but later relented and sent him to Murfreesborough Academy, where he studied industriously for nearly three years. In 1815 he entered the sophomore class of the North Carolina University, from which he was graduated with honor. He studied for the bar and was duly admitted. Returning to his native town, he began the practice of his profession and became successful, not only as a lawyer, but also as a political speaker. In 1823 he went to the Tennessee Legislature; and one year later, married Sarah Childless. He was elected to Congress in 1825, and was a member of that body for fourteen years. During five sessions he was Speaker of the House, for which office he was eminently fitted. He was elected Governor of Tennessee in 1839. The influence of Andrew Jackson, who was still a power in American politics, secured the nomination of James K. Polk for the Presidency. He was elected, and his inauguration took place March 4, 1845. He retired from his office at the close of his first term. But he was destined not to enjoy the peace of domestic life. He succumbed to that dread disease, cholera, on June 19, 1849.

ZACHARY TAYLOR.

ZACHARY TAYLOR, the twelfth President of the United States, was born November 24, 1784, in Orange county, Va. His father had been a staunch patriot in the Revolutionary War, at the close of which he removed with his family to Kentucky, and settled at a point a few miles from the present city of Louisville. Zachary's boyhood was spent amid the hardships of the frontier, and his early life was full of eventful experiences. He received a very meager schooling; and although he grew up a sturdy, self-reliant youth, he did not evince any tendency to become a scholar. When twenty-four years of age his father secured for him a Lieutenancy in the United States army. He went to New Orleans to join the troops, and soon afterward married Margaret Smith, a young lady belonging to one of the old Maryland families. Later he was promoted to the rank of Captain, and was placed in command of Fort Harrison. In 1812 the noted chief, Tecumseh, attempted to surprise the fort, but the little garrison defended itself bravely and the Indians were driven off with considerable loss. For this gallant action he was made a Major-General by brevet. At the close of the war between England and America he was ordered to the frontier. In the Black Hawk war he took an active part, and displayed marked military genius in his pursuit of this wily savage. It was natural that his ability should receive recognition, and his service in the defense of the frontier won him the title of Brigadier-General. In 1845 Texas was annexed to the Union, and war with Mexico followed as a consequence. The battle of Buena Vista closed the military career of General Taylor, and he returned home to receive the nomination of President. He was elected in 1848, but died July 9, 1850.

MILLARD FILLMORE.

MILLARD FILLMORE, the thirteenth President of the United States, was born at Summer Hill, Cayuga county, N. Y., January 7, 1800. His early opportunities were few, but he attended the common schools of the neighborhood until he was fourteen years of age. As time went on he grew eager for knowledge, and determined to devote every spare moment to study. When nineteen years of age his ambition urged him to prepare himself for the law. In the winters he taught school, and at twenty-one he went to Buffalo and entered a law office, where he studied with untiring zeal. In 1823 he was admitted to the Court of Common Pleas, and began his practice in the little village of Aurora. In 1826 he married Abigail Powers, and three years later he removed to Buffalo where he entered upon a prosperous practice. Soon afterward he became a member of the New York Legislature, and in 1832 he was elected to Congress. He returned to his home and his profession, but the quality of the man had made itself felt among his political associates, and in 1837 he was re-elected to the House. He made many effective speeches, and soon became prominent in all the most important movements of the day. At the close of his term he declined a re-election, and retired to private life. In 1847 he became Comptroller of the State, and discharged his duties with characteristic fidelity. He was elected Vice-President with Zachary Taylor, in 1848, and sixteen months later, when the chair of the chief executive became vacant, Millard Fillmore took the dead President's place. His administration closed amid much intense disapproval at the North. He received the nomination of the "Know Nothing" wing of his party, but was defeated. He died March 8, 1874.

FRANKLIN PIERCE.

FRANKLIN PIERCE, the fourteenth President of the United States, was born November 23, 1804, in Hillsborough, N. H. At an early age he attended the neighboring academies of Hancock and Francestown, and in 1820 entered Bowdoin College. He had inherited strong military tastes, and while at college he became an officer of a company in which Nathaniel Hawthorne was a private. Young Pierce was graduated in 1824, and at once began the study of law. He became a member of the bar and returned to his native town to enter upon his chosen profession. He was sent to the State Legislature, where he served four years, the last two of which he was Speaker of the House. In 1833 he was elected to Congress, where he supported all the measures of President Jackson and won his personal regard. At the age of thirty-three he entered the Senate, and soon attracted the attention of everyone by his forceful speeches. In 1834 he married Jane Appleton, the daughter of a President of Bowdoin College. In 1838 he removed to Concord, and rapidly won a brilliant legal reputation. President Polk appointed him Attorney General of the United States, but he declined the office. The war with Mexico offered a new career to him. He was commissioned Brigadier-General, and showed himself to be not only a brave soldier but an able leader. At the close of the war he returned to his home at Concord, and soon became deeply interested in politics. In 1852 Franklin Pierce was elected President of the United States. The question of slavery was the most important one in American politics, and the sympathies of the President were always with the South. At the close of his administration he returned to his home. He died at Concord, October 8, 1869.

JAMES BUCHANAN.

JAMES BUCHANAN, the fifteenth President of the United States, was born April 23, 1791, in Franklin county, Pennsylvania. When James reached his eighth year the family removed to Mercersburg, when the lad began his studies in English, Latin, and Greek. He was a bright scholar, and at fourteen entered Dickinson College, at Carlisle, from which institution he was graduated in 1809. He decided upon the legal profession and at the age of twenty-one was admitted to the bar. He soon acquired distinction as a lawyer of ability. In 1821 he was elected to Congress, where he remained for ten years. In the memorable canvass of 1824 he devoted his energies to securing the election of Andrew Jackson. In return for his support the President appointed him Minister to Russia. He possessed all the qualities of a successful diplomat, and rendered his country great service by negotiating a treaty of commerce with Russia. He returned to America to enter the Senate where he was conspicuous for his advocacy of state-right theories. He supported the administration of John Tyler; and when James K. Polk became President he appointed Buchanan Secretary of State. On the election of Franklin Pierce he was sent as Minister to England. In 1856 he was elected President of the United States, but proved wholly unfit to meet the demands of the office. He made no effort to stem the tide of secession. Had another man stood at the helm the Civil War might have been averted. His administration had been a succession of failures, and no doubt it was a relief to him to return to private life. He died at Wheatland, June 1, 1868, having witnessed the return of peace and the restoration of the Union.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

ABRAMHAM LINCOLN, the sixteenth President of the United States, was born in La Rue county, Kentucky, February 12, 1809. When Abraham was only eight years old his father removed to Indiana, and the boy grew up rapidly into a tall, vigorous youth, with a growing fondness for books. In 1830 the family went to Illinois, and young Lincoln obtained a position, in New Salem, as clerk in a store. He was chosen Captain of the militia, and in 1832 served in the Black Hawk War under Zachary Taylor. Upon his return to New Salem he was appointed postmaster, and a year later found employment as a surveyor. He then made up his mind to study law. He became a candidate for the State Legislature, and was triumphantly elected. He was again elected in 1836 and in 1839 he removed to Springfield, where he began the practice of law. In 1841 he married Mary Todd, and the record of the next twenty years is one of public life and responsibilities. In 1847 the Sangamon district sent him to Congress, where he took an active part against the extension of slavery. It was at this time that he delivered the immortal campaign speeches in which he matched his strength against his political rival, Stephen A. Douglas. He speedily won a national reputation, and was recognized as one of the leaders of the Republican party. In 1860 he was elected President of the United States. Then followed the Civil War, and in due time the Emancipation Proclamation. During his first administration the people had learned to love and trust him, and in 1864 he was re-elected by an overwhelming majority. On April 14, 1865, the news was flashed over the country that Abraham Lincoln, the Preserver of the Nation, had been stricken down by the hand of an assassin.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

ANDREW JOHNSON, the seventeenth President of the United States, was born December 29, 1808, at Raleigh, N. C. His parents were too poor to give him any advantages and at ten he was unable to read or write. He was apprenticed to a tailor, and worked at that trade until he was sixteen, at which time he had managed to learn his letters. When only eighteen years of age he removed with his mother to Greenville, a small town in eastern Tennessee. Here he married Eliza McCordle, who possessed educational advantages very much superior to his own. Under her tuition he acquired the rudiments of an education, and as he possessed natural ability and a good memory, he made rapid progress. At twenty he was an alderman, and at twenty-two he was mayor of Greenville. In 1836 he was elected to the Tennessee House of Representatives, and afterward to the State Senate. In 1843 Tennessee sent him as a representative to Congress, and by succeeding elections he held the office for ten years. In 1853 he was made Governor of Tennessee, and was re-elected at the expiration of his first term. In 1857 he was elected United States Senator by the Democratic party. Here he worked on party lines until the prospects of secession aroused his patriotism, and he separated from his party. He was elected Vice-President of the United States in 1864, and six weeks after his inauguration he succeeded Abraham Lincoln. He became involved in a quarrel with Congress and a series of unfortunate speeches nearly resulted in impeachment. Six years after he retired from the Presidency he was elected to the Senate, and at the close of the session he returned to Tennessee, where he died in 1875.

ULYSSES SIMPSON GRANT.

ULYSSES SIMPSON GRANT, the eighteenth President of the United States, was born April 29, 1822, at Point Pleasant, Clermont county, O. His father resolved that his young son should have the best school advantages that the neighborhood afforded. When Ulysses was seventeen years of age he entered West Point, but the life, with its unvarying routine and rigid discipline, never suited him. He graduated in 1843, and was assigned to duty with the Fourth United States Infantry at Jefferson Barracks, St. Louis. In the Mexican War he did his duty honestly and bravely, and was promoted to a First Lieutenantcy. Later he became Regimental Quartermaster and Commissary. He was married to Julia Dent in 1848, and the following year was ordered for garrison duty to Detroit, where he remained two years. In 1851 the Fourth Infantry was sent to California, and afterward to Fort Vancouver. In 1853 he was made a Captain, but finally resigned his post and returned to the East. In 1860 he removed to Galena and took a clerkship in his father's leather store. On the outbreak of the Civil War he organized a company of volunteers and marched with them to Springfield, and here he accepted a position in the Adjutant General's office, where he had charge of mustering the Illinois regiments into service. In return for his services Governor Yates appointed him Colonel of the Twenty-first Illinois Volunteers. The military record of this great commander is familiar to all. When the war was ended the nation showed its faith in General Grant by bestowing on him the highest office in its gift, the Presidency of the United States. He was elected in 1868 and re-elected at the close of his first administration. In 1880 an unsuccessful effort was made to nominate him for a third term. He died July 23, 1885, after a long and painful illness.

RUTHERFORD BIRCHARD HAYES.

RUTHERFORD BIRCHARD HAYES, the nineteenth President of the United States, was born at Delaware, O., October 4, 1822. His childhood "ran quiet as a brook." He first attended the common schools of the neighborhood, and then went to the academy at Newport. Later he entered Kenyon College, from which he was graduated in 1842. He began his legal studies at Columbus, but later attended the Harvard Law School, in order to equip himself more thoroughly for the bar. He established himself at Cincinnati, where his abilities as a lawyer were speedily recognized. In 1852 he married Lucy Webb. The firing on Fort Sumter exercised a great change in his life. He gave up his law practice and entered the army. He was appointed Major of the Twenty-third Ohio Volunteer Infantry, and shortly afterward was promoted to the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel. He served with gallantry and distinction throughout the war, and his services won him the rank of Brigadier-General. He was elected to Congress in 1865, and in 1867 he became Governor of Ohio, to which office he was twice re-elected. In 1876 he was nominated for President by the Republican National Convention. The contest which followed was bitter in the extreme; both parties claimed the election, and there were threats of civil war. The storm, however, finally subsided, and Rutherford B. Hayes took the oath of office, and was duly inaugurated President of the United States. The administration gave general satisfaction, and the policy of leniency toward the reconstructed states had the effect of obliterating sectional feeling. After his retirement he took part in many reforms. The closing years of his life were quiet and uneventful. He died on January 17, 1893.

JAMES ABRAM GARFIELD.

JAMES ABRAM GARFIELD, the twentieth President of the United States, was born November 19, 1831, in Cuyahoga county, Ohio. The story of his youth is the usual tale of pioneer life in the West—a fatherless boy's long, brave battle with misfortune under the scanty roof of a widowed mother. Young James attended the district school in the winter, and worked on the farm in the summer. He secured a position with his uncle, as tow-boy on a canal boat. In 1849 he entered the academy at Chester, and later went to Hiram College, where he remained for three years. In 1854 his uncle loaned him money to complete his studies in an Eastern college. He entered the junior class at Williams College, and at the age of twenty-four he graduated and returned to Ohio. He was offered a professorship in Hiram College, and later became its President. In 1858 he married Lucretia Rudolph, and in 1859 was elected to the State Senate. In 1861 a regiment of enthusiastic volunteers was organized at Hiram College and sent to the front, Garfield was appointed its Colonel, but was afterward promoted to the rank of Brigadier-General. After his recovery from a severe illness he joined the Army of the Cumberland as General Rosecrans' chief of staff. The last engagement in which he took part was the battle of Chickamauga, where he earned the title of Major-General. He retired from military service to enter Congress. Here he rendered his country splendid aid during a period that was full of new and untried issues. He was afterward elected to the United States Senate, and in 1880 was chosen President of the United States. The country is familiar with the story of assassination and his long struggle against death, but the fatal bullet had done its work, and he died September 19, 1881.

CHESTER ALAN ARTHUR.

CHESTER ALAN ARTHUR, the twenty-first President of the United States, was born October 27, 1830, in Fairfield, Franklin county, Vt. His father was bent on giving his son a liberal education, and Chester's boyhood had the advantage of careful training. At the age of fourteen he entered Union College. After he graduated he taught school for two years, and having saved a little money he went to New York where he studied diligently preparing himself for admission to the bar. He entered into a partnership with an intimate friend, and fortune smiled upon the young firm. For ten years young Arthur devoted himself to his profession, and his practice became extensive and lucrative. He early took part in anti-slavery movements, and his arguments in the famous *Lemon* slave case won him much honor, and he succeeded in securing the right of the negro to ride in the New York street cars. In 1855 he became Judge-Advocate of a New York regiment, was afterward appointed Chief Engineer on General Morgan's staff, and two years later became Inspector-General of the State. When the war broke out he was appointed a Brigadier-General, and served for six months. In 1871, President Grant made him Collector of the Port of New York. He occupied this high office for four years, at the end of which time he was re-appointed. He was elected Vice-President in 1880, and after the death of President Garfield he became the chief magistrate of the nation. His administration was a surprise to many, for everyone remembered inefficiencies of former Vice-Presidents who had succeeded to the office. In the end he earned the respect and admiration of the entire country. He died November 18, 1886.

GROVER CLEVELAND.

GROVER CLEVELAND, the twenty-second and twenty-fourth President of the United States, was born in Caldwell, N. J., March 18, 1837. At an early age he attended the schools at Fayetteville and Clinton. Young Cleveland was a sensible, practical youth who took a common-sense view of life. At seventeen he went to New York City, where he became clerk and assistant teacher in an institution for the blind. In 1855 he went to Buffalo where he entered a law office. In 1859 Grover Cleveland was admitted to the bar, and soon attained high rank as a lawyer. He was noted for the simplicity and directness of his logic, and for the thorough mastery of his cases. In 1881 he was nominated Mayor of Buffalo, and after his election became known as the "Veto Mayor." He was elected Governor of New York, and in this position showed his dislike of official parade and ceremony. He went on foot through the streets of Albany to the capitol, accompanied only by a friend, to take the oath of office. He proved an able executive, and although his opponents expressed their disapproval of his political measures no one questioned his honesty. In 1884 the Democratic National Convention at Chicago nominated Grover Cleveland for President of the United States. The campaign which followed was characterized by bitter party strife, but the election resulted in an overwhelming majority for the Democratic Candidate. His administration was marked by the same forcible and independent qualities that distinguished him as Mayor of Buffalo and Governor of New York. In 1886 the President was married to Frances Folsom, the daughter of his intimate friend and former law partner. In 1892 he was again elected President of the United States.

BENJAMIN HARRISON.

BENJAMIN HARRISON, the twenty-third President of the United States, was born at North Bend, Hamilton county, O., August 23, 1833. Benjamin was christened after the great-grandfather who set his name to the Declaration of Independence, and who served his country faithfully in the Colonial Congress, and as Governor of the young State of Virginia. His grandfather was the ninth President of the United States. After a preliminary schooling Benjamin was sent to an academy near Cincinnati where he remained for two years, when he entered the Miami University. He graduated at eighteen, taking the fourth honors of his class. He entered a law office in Cincinnati, and set about his legal studies with great earnestness. When barely twenty he married Caroline Scott. He became a member of the Indianapolis bar, and in 1860 was elected Reporter for the Supreme Court. His success dates from this period. In 1862 with a brilliant future before him, he made up his mind that his country had a claim upon his services, and, with characteristic promptness, he set about recruiting a company. He was commissioned Colonel of the Seventieth Regiment of Indiana Volunteers. He remained with his regiment until it was mustered out at the close of the war. As a soldier he rendered gallant service, and returned to Indianapolis with the rank of Brevet Brigadier-General. He resumed his law practice, and was re-elected to the office of Reporter of the Supreme Court. He refused a seat in President Garfield's Cabinet, because he had been unanimously chosen to the United States Senate, where he served for the next six years with marked ability. In 1888 he was elected President of the United States.

HISTORY
OF THE
UNITED STATES
AND
STATE OF INDIANA.

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HISTORY OF INDIANA.

FORMER OCCUPANTS.

PREHISTORIC RACES.

Scientists have ascribed to the Mound Builders varied origins, and though their divergence of opinion may for a time seem incompatible with a thorough investigation of the subject, and tend to a confusion of ideas, no doubt whatever can exist as to the comparative accuracy of conclusions arrived at by some of them. Like the vexed question of the Pillar Towers of Ireland, it has caused much speculation, and elicited the opinions of so many learned antiquarians, ethnologists and travelers, that it will not be found beyond the range of possibility to make deductions that may suffice to solve the problem who were the prehistoric settlers of America. To achieve this it will not be necessary to go beyond the period over which Scripture history extends, or to indulge in those airy flights of imagination so sadly identified with occasional writers of even the Christian school, and all the accepted literary exponents of modern paganism.

That this continent is co-existent with the world of the ancients cannot be questioned. Every investigation, instituted under the auspices of modern civilization, confirms the fact and leaves no channel open through which the skeptic can escape the thorough refutation of his opinions. China, with its numerous living testimonials of antiquity, with its ancient, though limited literature and its Babelish superstitions, claims a continuous history from antediluvian times; but although its continuity may be denied with every just reason, there is nothing to prevent the transmission of a hieroglyphic record of its history prior to 1656 *anno mundi*, since many traces of its early settlement survived the Deluge, and became sacred objects of the first historical epoch. This very survival of a record, such as that of which the Chinese boast, is not at vari-

ance with the designs of a God who made and ruled the universe; but that an antediluvian people inhabited this continent, will not be claimed; because it is not probable, though it may be possible, that a settlement in a land which may be considered a portion of the Asiatic continent, was effected by the immediate followers of the first progenitors of the human race. Therefore, on entering the study of the ancient people who raised these tumulus monuments over large tracts of the country, it will be just sufficient to wander back to that time when the flood-gates of heaven were swung open to hurl destruction on a wicked world; and in doing so the inquiry must be based on legendary, or rather upon many circumstantial evidences; for, so far as written narrative extends, there is nothing to show that a movement of people too far east resulted in a Western settlement.

THE FIRST IMMIGRATION.

The first and most probable sources in which the origin of the Builders must be sought, are those countries lying along the eastern coast of Asia, which doubtless at that time stretched far beyond its present limits, and presented a continuous shore from Lopatka to Point Cambodia, holding a population comparatively civilized, and all professing some elementary form of the Boodhism of later days. Those peoples, like the Chinese of the present, were bound to live at home, and probably observed that law until after the confusion of languages and the dispersion of the builders of Babel in 1757. A. M.; but subsequently, within the following century, the old Mongolians, like the new, crossed the great ocean in the very paths taken by the present representatives of the race, arrived on the same shores, which now extend a very questionable hospitality to them, and entered at once upon the colonization of the country south and east, while the Caucasian race engaged in a similar movement of exploration and colonization over what may be justly termed the western extension of Asia, and both peoples growing stalwart under the change, attained a moral and physical eminence to which they never could lay claim under the tropical sun which shed its beams upon the cradle of the human race.

That mysterious people who, like the Brahmins of today, worshiped some transitory deity, and in after years, evidently embraced the idealization of Boodhism, as preached in Mongolia early in the 35th century of the world, together with acquiring the learning of the Confucian and Pythagorean schools

of the same period, spread all over the land, and in their numerous settlements erected these raths, or mounds, and sacrificial altars whereon they received their periodical visiting gods, surrendered their bodies to natural absorption or annihilation, and watched for the return of some transmigrated soul, the while adoring the universe, which with all beings they believed would be eternally existent. They possessed religious orders corresponding in external show at least with the Essenes or Therapeutæ of the pre-Christian and Christian epochs, and to the reformed Therapeutæ or monks of the present. Every memento of their coming and their stay which has descended to us is an evidence of their civilized condition. The free copper found within the tumuli; the open veins of the Superior and Iron Mountain copper-mines, with all the *modus operandi* of ancient mining, such as ladders, levers, chisels, and hammer-heads, discovered by the French explorers of the Northwest and the Mississippi, are conclusive proofs that those prehistoric people were highly civilized, and that many flourishing colonies were spread throughout the Mississippi valley, while yet the mammoth, the mastodon, and a hundred other animals, now only known by their gigantic fossil remains, guarded the eastern shore of the continent as it were against supposed invasions of the Tower Builders who went west from Babel; while yet the beautiful isles of the Antilles formed an integral portion of this continent, long years before the European Northman dreamed of setting forth to the discovery of Greenland and the northern isles, and certainly at a time when all that portion of America north of latitude 45° was an ice-incumbered waste.

Within the last few years great advances have been made toward the discovery of antiquities whether pertaining to remains of organic or inorganic nature. Together with many small, but telling relics of the early inhabitants of the country, the fossils of prehistoric animals have been unearthed from end to end of the land, and in districts, too, long pronounced by geologists of some repute to be without even a vestige of vertebrate fossils. Among the collected souvenirs of an age about which so very little is known, are twenty-five vertebrae averaging thirteen inches in diameter, and three vertebrae ossified together measure nine cubical feet; a thigh-bone five feet long by twenty-eight, by twelve inches in diameter, and the shaft fourteen by eight inches thick, the entire lot weighing 600 lbs. These fossils are presumed to belong to the cretaceous period, when the Dinosaur roamed over the country from East to West, desolating the villages of the people. This animal is

said to have been sixty feet long, and when feeding in cypress and palm forests, to extend himself eighty-five feet, so that he may devour the budding tops of those great trees. Other efforts in this direction may lead to great results, and culminate probably in the discovery of a tablet engraved by some learned Mound Builder, describing in the ancient hieroglyphics of China all these men and beasts whose history excites so much speculation. The identity of the Mound Builders with the Mongolians might lead us to hope for such a consummation; nor is it beyond the range of probability, particularly in this practical age, to find the future labors of some industrious antiquarian requited by the upheaval of a tablet, written in the Tartar characters of 1700 years ago, bearing on a subject which can now be treated only on a purely circumstantial basis.

THE SECOND IMMIGRATION

may have begun a few centuries prior to the Christian era, and unlike the former expedition or expeditions, to have traversed northeastern Asia to its Arctic confines, and then east to the narrow channel now known as Behring's Straits, which they crossed, and sailing up the unchanging Yukon, settled under the shadow of Mount St. Elias for many years, and pushing South commingled with their countrymen, soon acquiring the characteristics of the descendants of the first colonists. Chinese chronicles tell of such a people, who went North and were never heard of more. Circumstances conspire to render that particular colony the carriers of a new religious faith and of an alphabetic system of a representative character to the old colonists, and they, doubtless, exercised a most beneficial influence in other respects; because the influx of immigrants of such culture as were the Chinese, even of that remote period, must necessarily bear very favorable results, not only in bringing in reports of their travels but also accounts from the fatherland bearing on the latest events.

With the idea of a second and important exodus there are many theorists united, one of whom says: "It is now the generally received opinion that the first inhabitants of America passed over from Asia through these straits. The number of small islands lying between both continents renders this opinion still more probable; and it is yet further confirmed by some remarkable traces of similarity in the physical conformation of the northern natives of both continents. The Esquimaux of North America, the Samoieds of Asia, and the Laplanders of Europe, are supposed to be of the same family; and

this supposition is strengthened by the affinity which exists in their languages. The researches of Humboldt have traced the Mexicans to the vicinity of Behring's Straits; whence it is conjectured that they, as well as the Peruvians and other tribes, came originally from Asia, and were the Hiongnuos, who are, in the Chinese annals, said to have emigrated under Puno, and to have been lost in the North of Siberia."

Since this theory is accepted by most antiquaries, there is every reason to believe that from the discovery of what may be called an overland route to what was then considered an eastern extension of that country which is now known as the "Celestial Empire," many caravans of emigrants passed to their new homes in the land of illimitable possibilities until the way became a well-marked trail over which the Asiatic might travel forward, and having once entered the Elysian fields never entertained an idea of returning. Thus from generation to generation the tide of immigration poured in until the slopes of the Pacific and the banks of the great inland rivers became hives of busy industry. Magnificent cities and monuments were raised at the bidding of the tribal leaders and populous settlements centered with happy villages sprang up everywhere in manifestation of the power and wealth and knowledge of the people. The colonizing Caucasian of the historic period walked over this great country on the very ruins of a civilization which a thousand years before eclipsed all that of which he could boast. He walked through the wilderness of the West over buried treasures hidden under the accumulated growth of nature, nor rested until he saw, with great surprise, the remains of ancient pyramids and temples and cities, larger and evidently more beautiful than ancient Egypt could bring forth after its long years of uninterrupted history. The pyramids resemble those of Egypt in exterior form, and in some instances are of larger dimensions. The pyramid of Cholula is square, having each side of its base 1,335 feet in length, and its height about 172 feet. Another pyramid, situated in the north of Vera Cruz, is formed of large blocks of highly-polished porphyry, and bears upon its front hieroglyphic inscriptions and curious sculpture. Each side of its square base is 82 feet in length, and a flight of 57 steps conducts to its summit, which is 65 feet in height. The ruins of Palenque are said to extend 20 miles along the ridge of a mountain, and the remains of an Aztec city, near the banks of the river Gila, are spread over more than a square league. Their literature consisted of hieroglyphics; but their arithmetical knowledge did not extend farther than their calculations by the aid of grains of corn.

Yet, notwithstanding all their varied accomplishments, and they were evidently many, their notions of religious duty led to a most demoniac zeal at once barbarously savage and ferociously cruel. Each visiting god, instead of bringing new life to the people, brought death to thousands; and their grotesque idols, exposed to drown the senses of the beholders in fear, wrought wretchedness rather than spiritual happiness, until, as some learned and humane Montezumian said, the people never approached these idols without fear, and this fear was the great animating principle, the great religious motive power which sustained the terrible religion. Their altars were sprinkled with blood drawn from their own bodies in large quantities, and on them thousands of human victims were sacrificed in honor of the demons whom they worshiped. The head and heart of every captive taken in war were offered up as a bloody sacrifice to the god of battles, while the victorious legions feasted on the remaining portions of the dead bodies. It has been ascertained that during the ceremonies attendant on the consecration of two of their temples, the number of prisoners offered up in sacrifice was 12,210; while their own legions contributed voluntary victims to the terrible belief in large numbers. Nor did this horrible custom cease immediately after 1521, when Cortez entered the imperial city of the Montezumas; for, on being driven from it, all his troops who fell into the hands of the native soldiers were subjected to the most terrible and prolonged suffering that could be experienced in this world, and when about to yield up that spirit which is indestructible, were offered in sacrifice, their hearts and heads consecrated, and the victors allowed to feast on the yet warm flesh.

A reference is made here to the period when the Montezumas ruled over Mexico, simply to gain a better idea of the hideous idolatry which took the place of the old Buddhism of the Mound Builders, and doubtless helped in a great measure to give victory to the new comers, even as the tenets of Mohametanism urged the ignorant followers of the prophet to the conquest of great nations. It was not the faith of the people who built the mounds and the pyramids and the temples, and who, 200 years before the Christian era, built the great wall of jealous China. No; rather was it that terrible faith born of the Tartar victory, which carried the great defenses of China at the point of the javelin and hatchet, who afterward marched to the very walls of Rome, under Alarie, and spread over the islands of Polynesia to the Pacific slopes of South America.

THE TARTARS

came there, and, like the pure Mongols of Mexico and the Mississippi valley, rose to a state of civilization bordering on that attained by them. Here for centuries the sons of the fierce Tartar race continued to dwell in comparative peace until the all-ruling ambition of empire took in the whole country from the Pacific to the Atlantic, and peopled the vast territory watered by the Amazon with a race that was destined to conquer all the peoples of the Orient, and only fall before the march of the arch-civilizing Caucasian. In course of time those fierce Tartars pushed their settlements northward, and ultimately entered the territories of the Mound Builders, putting to death all who fell within their reach, and causing the survivors of the death-dealing invasion to seek a refuge from the hordes of this semi-barbarous people in the wilds and fastnesses of the North and Northwest. The beautiful country of the Mound Builders was now in the hands of savage invaders, the quiet, industrious people who raised the temples and pyramids were gone; and the wealth of intelligence and industry, accumulating for ages, passed into the possession of a rapacious horde, who could admire it only so far as it offered objects for plunder. Even in this the invaders were satisfied, and then having arrived at the height of their ambition, rested on their swords and entered upon the luxury and ease in the enjoyment of which they were found when the vanguard of European civilization appeared upon the scene. Meantime the southern countries which these adventurers abandoned after having completed their conquests in the North, were soon peopled by hundreds of people, always moving from island to island and ultimately halting amid the ruins of villages deserted by those who, as legends tell, had passed eastward but never returned; and it would scarcely be a matter for surprise if those emigrants were found to be the progenitors of that race found by the Spaniards in 1532, and identical with the Araucanians, Cuenches and Huilliches of to-day.

RELICS OF THE MOUND BUILDERS.

One of the most brilliant and impartial historians of the Republic stated that the valley of the Mississippi contained no monuments. So far as the word is entertained now, he was literally correct, but in some hasty effort neglected to qualify his sentence by a reference to the numerous relics of antiquity to be found throughout its length and breadth, and so exposed

his chapters to criticism. The valley of the Father of Waters, and indeed the country from the trap rocks of the Great Lakes southeast to the Gulf and southwest to Mexico, abound in tell-tale monuments of a race of people much farther advanced in civilization than the Montezumas of the sixteenth century. The remains of walls and fortifications found in Kentucky and Indiana, the earthworks of Vincennes and throughout the valley of the Wabash, the mounds scattered over Alabama, Florida, Georgia and Virginia, and those found in Illinois, Wisconsin and Minnesota, are all evidences of the universality of the Chinese Mongols and of their advance toward a comparative knowledge of man and cosmology. At the mouth of Fourteen-Mile creek, in Clark county, Indiana, there stands one of these old monuments known as the "Stone Fort." It is an unmistakable heirloom of a great and ancient people, and must have formed one of their most important posts. The State Geologist's report, filed among the records of the State and furnished by Prof. Cox, says: "At the mouth of Fourteen-Mile creek, and about three miles from Charleston, the county seat of Clark county, there is one of the most remarkable stone fortifications which has ever come under my notice. Accompanied by my assistant, Mr. Borden, and a number of citizens of Charleston, I visited the 'Stone Fort' for the purpose of making an examination of it. The locality selected for this fort presents many natural advantages for making it impregnable to the opposing forces of prehistoric times. It occupies the point of an elevated narrow ridge which faces the Ohio river on the east and is bordered by Fourteen-Mile creek on the west side. This creek empties into the Ohio a short distance below the fort. The top of the ridge is pear-shaped, with the part answering to the neck at the north end. This part is not over twenty feet wide, and is protected by precipitous natural walls of stone. It is 280 feet above the level of the Ohio river, and the slope is very gradual to the south. At the upper field it is 240 feet high and one hundred steps wide. At the lower timber it is 120 feet high. The bottom land at the foot of the south end is sixty feet above the river. Along the greater part of the Ohio river front there is an abrupt escarpment rock, entirely too steep to be scaled, and a similar natural barrier exists along a portion of the northwest side of the ridge, facing the creek. This natural wall is joined to the neck of an artificial wall, made by piling up, mason fashion but without mortar, loose stone, which had evidently been pried up from the carboniferous layers of rock. This made wall, at this point, is about 150 feet long. It is built along the slope of the hill and had an elevation of about 75 feet above its

base, the upper ten feet being vertical. The inside of the wall is protected by a ditch. The remainder of the hill is protected by an artificial stone wall, built in the same manner, but not more than ten feet high. The elevation of the side wall above the creek bottom is 80 feet. Within the artificial walls is a string of mounds which rise to the height of the wall, and are protected from the washing of the hillsides by a ditch 20 feet wide and four feet deep. The position of the artificial walls, natural cliffs of bedded stone, as well as that of the ditch and mounds, are well illustrated. The top of the enclosed ridge embraces ten or twelve acres, and there are as many as five mounds that can be recognized on the flat surface, while no doubt many others existed which have been obliterated by time, and through the agency of man in his efforts to cultivate a portion of the ground. A trench was cut into one of these mounds in search of relics. A few fragments of charcoal and decomposed bones, and a large, irregular, diamond-shaped boulder, with a small circular indentation near the middle of the upper part, that was worn quite smooth by the use to which it had been put, and the small pieces of fossil coral, comprised all the articles of note which were revealed by the excavation. The earth of which the mound is made resembles that seen on the hillside, and was probably in most part taken from the ditch. The margin next to the ditch was protected by slabs of stone set on edge, and leaning at an angle corresponding to the slope of the mound. This stone shield was two and one-half feet wide and one foot high. At intervals along the great ditch there are channels formed between the mounds that probably served to carry off the surplus water through openings in the outer wall. On the top of the enclosed ridge, and near its narrowest part, there is one mound much larger than any of the others, and so situated as to command an extensive view up and down the Ohio river, as well as affording an unobstructed view east and west. This is designated as 'Look-out Mound.' There is near it a slight break in the cliff of rock, which furnished a narrow passage way to the Ohio river. Though the locality afforded many natural advantages for a fort or stronghold, one is compelled to admit that much skill was displayed and labor expended in making its defense as perfect as possible at all points. Stone axes, pestles, arrow-heads, spear-points, totums, charms and flint flakes have been found in great abundance in plowing the field at the foot of the old fort."

From the "Stone Fort" the Professor turns his steps to Posey county, at a point on the Wabash, ten miles above the mouth called "Bone Bank," on account of the number of human bones

continually washed out from the river bank. "It is," he states, "situated in a bend on the left bank of the river; and the ground is about ten feet above high water mark, being the only land along this portion of the river that is not submerged in seasons of high water. The bank slopes gradually back from the river to a slough. This slough now seldom contains water, but no doubt at one time it was an arm of the Wabash river, which flowed around the Bone Bank and afforded protection to the island home of the Mound Builders. The Wabash has been changing its bed for many years, leaving a broad extent of newly made land on the right shore, and gradually making inroads on the left shore by cutting away the Bone Bank. The stages of growth of land on the right bank of the river are well defined by the cottonwood trees, which increase in size as you go back from the river. Unless there is a change in the current of the river, all trace of the Bone Bank will be obliterated. Already within the memory of the white inhabitants, the bank has been removed to the width of several hundred yards. As the bank is cut by the current of the river, it loses its support, and when the water sinks it tumbles over, carrying with it the bones of the Mound Builders and the cherished articles buried with them. No locality in the country furnishes a greater number and variety of relics than this. It has proved especially rich in pottery of quaint design and skillful workmanship. I have a number of jugs and pots and a cup found at the Bone Bank. This kind of work has been very abundant, and is still found in such quantities that we are led to conclude that its manufacture formed a leading industry of the inhabitants of the Bone Bank. It is not in Europe alone that we find a well-founded claim of high antiquity for the art of making hard and durable stone by a mixture of clay, lime, sand and stone, for I am convinced that this art was possessed by a race of people who inhabited this continent at a period so remote that neither tradition nor history can furnish any account of them. They belonged to the Neolithic, or polished-stone, age. They lived in towns and built mounds for sepulture and worship, and protected their homes by surrounding them with walls of earth and stone. In some of these mounds specimens of various kinds of pottery, in a perfect state of preservation, have from time to time been found, and fragments are so common that every student of archaeology can have a bountiful supply. Some of these fragments indicate vessels of very great size. At the Saline springs of Gallatin I picked up fragments that indicated, by their curvature, vessels five to six feet in diameter, and it is probable they are fragments of artificial stone pans

used to hold brine that was manufactured into salt by solar evaporation.

"Now, all the pottery belonging to the Mound Builders' age, which I have seen, is composed of alluvial clay and sand, or a mixture of the former with pulverized fresh-water shells. A paste made of such a mixture possesses, in high degree, the properties of hydraulic Puzzuoland and Portland cement, so that vessels formed of it hardened without being burned, as is customary with modern pottery."

The Professor deals very aptly with this industry of the aborigines, and concludes a very able disquisition on the Bone Bank in its relation to the prehistoric builders.

The great circular redoubt or earth-work found two miles west of the village of New Washington, and the "Stone Fort," on a ridge one mile west of the village of Deputy, offer a subject for the antiquarian as deeply interesting as any of the monuments of a decayed empire so far discovered.

From end to end of Indiana there are to be found many other relics of the obscure past. Some of them have been unearthed and now appear among the collected antiquities at Indianapolis. The highly finished standstone pipe, the copper ax, stone axes, flint arrow-heads and magnetic plummet found a few years ago beneath the soil of Cut-Off Island near New Harmony, together with the pipes of rare workmanship and undoubted age, unearthed near Covington, all live as it were in testimony of their owner's and maker's excellence, and hold a share in the evidence of the partial annihilation of a race, with the complete disruption of its manners, customs and industries; and it is possible that when numbers of these relics are placed together, a key to the phonetic or rather hieroglyphic system of that remote period might be evolved.

It may be asked what these hieroglyphical characters really are. Well, they are varied in form, so much so that the pipes found in the mounds of Indians, each bearing a distinct representation of some animal, may be taken for one species, used to represent the abstract ideas of the Mound Builders. The second form consists of pure hieroglyphics or phonetic characters, in which the sound is represented instead of the object; and the third, or painted form of the first, conveys to the mind that which is desired to be represented. This form exists among the Cree Indians of the far Northwest, at present. They, when departing from their permanent villages for the distant hunting grounds, paint on the barked trees in the neighborhood the figure of a snake or eagle, or perhaps huskey dog; and this animal is supposed to guard the position until the warrior's return,

or welcome any friendly tribes that may arrive there in the interim. In the case of the Mound Builders, it is unlikely that this latter extreme was resorted to, for the simple reason that the relics of their occupation are too high in the ways of art to tolerate such a barbarous science of language; but the sculptured pipes and javelins and spear-heads of the Mound Builders may be taken as a collection of graven images, each conveying a set of ideas easily understood, and perhaps sometimes or more generally used to designate the vocation, name or character of the owner. That the builders possessed an alphabet of a phonetic form, and purely hieroglyphic, can scarcely be questioned; but until one or more of the unearthened tablets, which bore all or even a portion of such characters are raised from their centuried graves, the mystery which surrounds this people must remain, while we must dwell in a world of mere speculation.

Vigo, Jasper, Sullivan, Switzerland and Ohio counties can boast of a most liberal endowment in this relation; and when in other days the people will direct a minute inquiry, and penetrate to the very heart of the thousand cones which are scattered throughout the land, they may possibly extract the blood in the shape of metallic and porcelain works, with hieroglyphic tablets, while leaving the form of the heart and body complete to entertain and delight unborn generations, who in their time will wonder much when they learn that an American people, living toward the close of the 59th century, could possibly indulge in such an anachronism as is implied in the term "New World."

THE INDIANS.

The origin of the Red Men, or American Indians, is a subject which interests as well as instructs. It is a favorite with the ethnologist, even as it is one of deep concern to the ordinary reader. A review of two works lately published on the origin of the Indians treats the matter in a peculiarly reasonable light. It says:

"Recently a German writer has put forward one theory on the subject and an English writer has put forward another and directly opposite theory. The difference of opinion concerning our aboriginals among authors who have made a profound study of races is at once curious and interesting. Blumenbach treats them in his classification as a distinct variety of the human family; but, in the threefold division of Dr. Latham, they are ranked among the Mongolidae. Other writers on race regard them as a branch of the great Mongolian family,

which at a distant period found its way from Asia to this continent, and remained here for centuries separate from the rest of mankind, passing meanwhile, through divers phases of barbarism and civilization. Morton, our eminent ethnologist, and his followers, Nott and Gliddon, claim for our native Red Men an origin as distinct as the flora and fauna of this continent. Prichard, whose views are apt to differ from Morton's, finds reason to believe, on comparing the American tribes together, that they must have formed a separate department of nations from the earliest period of the world. The era of their existence as a distinct and insulated people must probably be dated back to the time which separated into nations the inhabitants of the Old World, and gave to each its individuality and primitive language. Dr. Robert Brown, the latest authority, attributes, in his 'Races of Mankind,' an Asiatic origin to our aborigines. He says that the Western Indians not only personally resemble their nearest neighbors—the Northeastern Asiatics—but they resemble them in language and traditions. The Esquimaux on the American and the Tchukcheis on the Asiatic side understand one another perfectly. Modern anthropologists, indeed, are disposed to think that Japan, the Kuriles, and neighboring regions, may be regarded as the original home of the greater part of the native American race. It is also admitted by them that between the tribes scattered from the Arctic sea to Cape Horn there is more uniformity of physical features than is seen in any other quarter of the globe. The weight of evidence and authority is altogether in favor of the opinion that our so-called Indians are a branch of the Mongolian family, and all additional researches strengthen the opinion. The tribes of both North and South America are unquestionably homogeneous, and, in all likelihood, had their origin in Asia, though they have been altered and modified by thousands of years of total separation from the parent stock."

The conclusions arrived at by the reviewer at that time, though safe, are too general to lead the reader to form any definite idea on the subject. No doubt whatever can exist, when the American Indian is regarded as of an Asiatic origin; but there is nothing in the works or even in the review, to which these works were subjected, which might account for the vast difference in manner and form between the Red Man, as he is now known, or even as he appeared to Columbus and his successors in the field of discovery, and the comparatively civilized inhabitants of Mexico as seen in 1521 by Cortez, and of Peru, as witnessed by Pizarro in 1532. The fact is that the pure bred Indian of the present is descended directly from the earli-

est inhabitants, or in other words from the survivors of that people who, on being driven from their fair possessions, retired to the wilderness in sorrow and reared up their children under the saddening influences of their unquenchable griefs, bequeathing them only the habits of the wild, cloud-roofed home of their declining years, a sullen silence and a rude moral code. In after years these wild sons of the forest and prairie grew in numbers and in strength. Some legend told them of their present sufferings, of the station which their fathers once had known, and of the riotous race which now reveled in wealth which should be theirs. The fierce passions of the savage were aroused, and uniting their scattered bands, marched in silence upon the villages of the Tartars, driving them onward to the capital of their Incas, and consigning their homes to the flames. Once in view of the great city, the hurrying bands halted in surprise; but Tartar cunning took in the situation and offered pledges of amity, which were sacredly observed. Henceforth Mexico was open to the Indians, bearing precisely the same relation to them that the Hudson's Bay Company's villages do to the Northwestern Indians of the present; obtaining all, and bestowing very little. The subjection of the Mongolian race represented in North America by that branch of it to which the Tartars belonged, represented in the Southern portion of the continent, seems to have taken place some five centuries before the advent of the European, while it may be concluded that the war of the races which resulted in reducing the villages erected by the Tartar hordes to ruin took place between one and two hundred years later. These statements though actually referring to events which in point of time are comparatively modern, can only be substantiated by the facts that about the periods mentioned the dead bodies of an unknown race of men were washed ashore on the European coasts, while previous to that time there is no account whatever in European annals of even a vestige of trans-Atlantic humanity being transferred by ocean currents to the gaze of a wandering people. Towards the latter half of the 15th century two dead bodies entirely free from decomposition, and corresponding with the Red Men as they afterward appeared to Columbus, were cast on the shores of the Azores, and confirmed Columbus in his belief in the existence of a western world and western people.

Storm and flood and disease have created sad havoc in the ranks of the Indian since the occupation of the country by the white man. These natural causes have conspired to decimate the race even more than the advance of civilization.

which seems not to affect it to any material extent. In its maintenance of the same number of representatives during three centuries, and its existence in the very face of a most unceremonious, and, whenever necessary, cruel conquest, the grand dispensations of the unseen Ruler of the universe is demonstrated; for, without the aborigines, savage and treacherous as they were, it is possible that the explorers of former times would have so many natural difficulties to contend with, that their work would be surrendered in despair, and the most fertile regions of the continent saved for the plowshares of generations yet unborn. It is questionable whether we owe the discovery of this continent to the unaided scientific knowledge of Columbus, or to the dead bodies of the two Indians referred to above; nor can their services to the explorers of ancient and modern times be over-estimated. Their existence is embraced in the plan of the Divinity for the government of the world, and it will not form subject for surprise to learn that the same intelligence which sent a thrill of liberty into every corner of the republic will, in the near future, devise some method under which the remnant of a great and ancient race may taste the sweets of public kindness, and feel that, after centuries of turmoil and tyranny, they have at last found a shelter amid a sympathizing people. Many have looked at the Indian as the pessimist does at all things; they say that he was never formidable until the white man supplied him with the weapons of modern warfare; but there is no mention made of his eviction from his retired home, and the little plot of cultivated garden which formed the nucleus of a village that, if fostered instead of being destroyed, might possibly hold an Indian population of some importance in the economy of the nation. There is no intention whatever to maintain that the occupation of this country by the favored races is wrong even in principle; for where any obstacle to advancing civilization exists it has to fall to the ground; but it may be said, with some truth, that the white man, instead of a policy of conciliation formed upon the power of kindness, indulged in belligerency as impolitic as it was unjust. A modern writer says, when speaking of the Indian's character: "He did not exhibit that steady valor and efficient discipline of the American soldier; and to-day on the plains Sheridan's troopers would not hesitate to attack the bravest band, though outnumbered three to one." This piece of information applies to the European and African, as well as to the Indian. The American soldier, and particularly the troopers referred to, would not fear or shrink from a very legion of demons, even

with odds against them. This mode of warfare seems strangely peculiar when compared with the military systems of civilized countries; yet, since the main object of armed men is to defend a country or a principle, and to destroy anything which may oppose itself to them, the mode of warfare pursued by the savage will be found admirably adapted to their requirements in this connection, and will doubtless compare favorably with the systems of the Afghans and Persians of the present, and the Caucasian people of the first historic period.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.

The art of hunting not only supplied the Indian with food, but like that of war, was a means of gratifying his love of distinction. The male children, as soon as they acquired sufficient age and strength, were furnished with a bow and arrow and taught to shoot birds and other small game. Success in killing a large quadruped required years of careful study and practice, and the art was sedulously inculcated in the minds of the rising generation as are the elements of reading, writing and arithmetic in the common schools of civilized communities. The mazes of the forest and the dense, tall grass of the prairies were the best fields for the exercise of the hunter's skill. No feet could be impressed in the yielding soil but that the tracks were the objects of the most searching scrutiny, and revealed at a glance the animal that made them, the direction it was pursuing, and the time that had elapsed since it had passed. In a forest country he selected the valleys, because they were most frequently the resort of game. The most easily taken, perhaps, of all the animals of the chase was the deer. It is endowed with a curiosity which prompts it to stop in its flight and look back at the approaching hunter, who always avails himself of this opportunity to let fly the fatal arrow.

Their general councils were composed of the chiefs and old men. When in council, they usually sat in concentric circles around the speaker, and each individual, notwithstanding the fiery passions that rankled within, preserved an exterior as immovable as if cast in bronze. Before commencing business a person appeared with the sacred pipe, and another with fire to kindle it. After being lighted it was first presented to heaven, secondly to the earth, thirdly to the presiding spirit, and lastly to the several councillors, each of whom took a whiff. These formalities were observed with as close exactness as state etiquette in civilized courts.

The dwellings of the Indians were of the simplest and rudest character. On some pleasant spot by the bank of a river, or near an ever-running spring, they raised their groups of wigwams, constructed of the bark of trees, and easily taken down and removed to another spot. The dwelling-places of the chiefs were sometimes more spacious and constructed with greater care, but of the same materials. Skins taken in the chase served them for repose. Though principally dependent upon hunting and fishing, the uncertain supply from those sources led them to cultivate small patches of corn. Every family did everything necessary within itself, commerce, or an interchange of articles being almost unknown to them. In cases of dispute and dissension, each Indian relied upon himself for retaliation. Blood for blood was the rule, and the relatives of the slain man were bound to obtain bloody revenge for his death. This principle gave rise, as a matter of course, to innumerable and bitter feuds, and wars of extermination where such were possible. War, indeed, rather than peace, was the Indian's glory and delight,—war, not conducted as civilization, but war where individual skill, endurance, gallantry and cruelty were prime requisites. For such a purpose as revenge the Indian would make great sacrifices, and display a patience and perseverance truly heroic; but when the excitement was over, he sank back into a listless, unoccupied, well-nigh useless savage. During the intervals of his more exciting pursuits, the Indian employed his time in decorating his person with all the refinement of paint and feathers, and in the manufacture of his arms and of canoes. These were constructed of bark, and so light that they could easily be carried on the shoulder from stream to stream. His amusements were the war-dance, athletic games, the narration of his exploits, and listening to the oratory of the chiefs; but during long periods of such existence he remained in a state of torpor, gazing listlessly upon the trees of the forests and the clouds above them; and this vacancy imprinted an habitual gravity, and even melancholy, upon his general deportment.

The main labor and drudgery of Indian communities fell upon the women. The planting, tending and gathering of the crops, making mats and baskets, carrying burdens—in fact, all things of the kind were performed by them, thus making their condition but little better than that of slaves. Marriage was merely a matter of bargain and sale, the husband giving presents to the father of the bride. In general they had but few children. They were subjected to many and severe attacks of sickness, and at times famine and pestilence swept away whole tribes.

EXPLORATIONS BY THE WHITES.

EARLIEST EXPLORERS.

The State of Indiana is bounded on the east by the meridian line which forms also the western boundary of Ohio, extending due north from the mouth of the Great Miami river; on the south by the Ohio river from the mouth of the Great Miami to the mouth of the Wabash; on the west by a line drawn along the middle of the Wabash river from its mouth to a point where a due north line from the town of Vincennes would last touch the shore of said river, and thence directly north to Lake Michigan; and on the north by said lake and an east and west line ten miles north of the extreme south end of the lake and extending to its intersection with the aforesaid meridian, the west boundary of Ohio. These boundaries include an area of 33,809 square miles, lying between $37^{\circ} 47'$ and $41^{\circ} 50'$ north latitude, and between $7^{\circ} 45'$ and $11^{\circ} 1'$ west longitude from Washington.

After the discovery of America by Columbus in 1492, more than 150 years passed away before any portion of the territory now comprised within the above limits was explored by Europeans. Colonies were established in Florida, Virginia and Nova Scotia by the principal rival governments of Europe, but not until about 1670-2 did the first white travelers venture as far into the Northwest as Indiana or Lake Michigan. These explorers were Frenchmen by the names of Claude Allouez and Claude Dablon, who then visited what is now the eastern part of Wisconsin, the northeastern portion of Illinois and probably that portion of this State north of the Kankakee river. In the following year M. Joliet, an agent of the French Colonial government, and James Marquette, a good and simple-hearted missionary who had his station at Mackinaw, explored the country about Green Bay, and along Fox and Wisconsin rivers as far westward as the Mississippi, the banks of which they reached June 17, 1673. They descended this river to about $33^{\circ} 40'$, but returned by way of the Illinois river and the route they came in the Lake Region. At a village among the Illinois Indians, Marquette and his small band of adventurers were received in a friendly manner and treated hospitably. They were made the honored guests at a

great feast, where hominy, fish, dog meat and roast buffalo meat were spread before them in great abundance. In 1682 La Salle explored the West, but it is not known that he entered the region now embraced within the State of Indiana. He took formal possession, however, of all the Mississippi region in the name of the King of France, in whose honor he gave all this Mississippi region, including what is now Indiana, the name "Louisiana." Spain at the same time laid claim to all the region about the Gulf of Mexico, and thus these two great nations were brought into collision. But the country was actually held and occupied by the great Miami confederacy of Indians, the Miamis proper (anciently the Twightwees) being the eastern and most powerful tribe. Their territory extended strictly from the Scioto river west to the Illinois river. Their villages were few and scattering, and their occupation was scarcely dense enough to maintain itself against invasion. Their settlements were occasionally visited by Christian missionaries, fur traders and adventurers, but no body of white men made any settlement sufficiently permanent for a title to national possession. Christian zeal animated France and England in missionary enterprise, the former in the interests of Catholicism and the latter in the interests of Protestantism. Hence their haste to preoccupy the land and proselyte the aborigines. No doubt this ugly rivalry was often seen by Indians, and they refused to be proselyted to either branch of Christianity.

The "Five Nations," farther east, comprised the Mohawks, Oneidas, Cayugas, Onondaguas and Senecas. In 1677 the number of warriors in this confederacy was 2,150. About 1711 the Tuscaroras retired from Carolina and joined the Iroquois, or Five Nations, which, after that event, became known as the "Six Nations." In 1689 hostilities broke out between the Five Nations and the colonists of Canada, and the almost constant wars in which France was engaged until the treaty of Ryswick in 1697 combined to check the grasping policy of Louis XIV., and to retard the planting of French colonies in the Mississippi valley. Missionary efforts, however, continued with more failure than success, the Jesuits allying themselves with the Indians in habits and customs, even encouraging inter-marriage between them and their white followers.

OUABACHE.

The Wabash was first named by the French, and spelled by them Onabache. This river was known even before the Ohio, and was navigated as the Ouabache all the way to the Missis-

issippi a long time before it was discovered that it was a tributary of the Ohio (Belle Riviere). In navigating the Mississippi they thought they passed the mouth of the Ouabache instead of the Ohio. In traveling from the Great Lakes to the south, the French always went by the way of the Ouabache or Illinois.

VINCENNES.

Francois Morgan de Vinsenne served in Canada as early as 1720 in the regiment of "De Carrignan" of the French service, and again on the lakes in the vicinity of Sault Ste. Marie in the same service under M. de Vaudriel, in 1725. It is possible that his advent to Vincennes may have taken place in 1732; and in proof of this the only record is an act of sale under the joint names of himself and Madame Vinsenne, the daughter of M. Philip Longprie, and dated Jan. 5, 1735. This document gives his military position as commandant of the post of Ouabache in the service of the French King. The will of Longprie, dated March 10, same year, bequeaths him, among other things, 408 pounds of pork, which he ordered to be kept safe until Vinsenne, who was then at Ouabache, returned to Kaskaskia.

There are many other documents connected with its early settlement by Vinsenne, among which is a receipt for the 100 pistoles granted him as his wife's marriage dowry. In 1736 this officer was ordered to Charlevoix by D'Artagette, viceroy of the King at New Orleans, and commandant of Illinois. Here M. St. Vinsenne received his mortal wounds. The event is chronicled as follows in the words of D'Artagette: "We have just received very bad news from Louisiana, and our war with the Chickasaws. The French have been defeated. Among the slain is M. de Vinsenne, who ceased not until his last breath to exhort his men to behave worthy of their faith and fatherland."

Thus closed the career of this gallant officer, leaving a name which holds as a remembrancer the present beautiful town of Vincennes, changed from Vinsenne to its present orthography in 1749.

Post Vincennes was settled as early as 1710 or 1711. In a letter from Father Marest to Father Germon, dated at Kaskaskia, Nov. 9, 1712, occurs this passage: "*Les Francois estoient itabli au fort sur le fleuve Ouabache; ils demanderent un missionnaire; et le Pere Mermet leur fut enroye. Ce Pere eut devoir travailler a la conversion des Mascoutens qui avoient fait un village sur les bords dumeme fleuve. C'est une nation Indiens qui entend la langue Illinois.*" Translated: "The

French have established a fort upon the river Wabash, and want a missionary; and Father Mermet has been sent to them. That Father believes he should labor for the conversion of the Mascoutens, who have built a village on the banks of the same river. They are a nation of Indians who understand the language of the Illinois."

Mermet was therefore the first preacher of Christianity in this part of the world, and his mission was to convert the Mascoutens, a branch of the Miamis. "The way I took," says he, "was to confound, in the presence of the whole tribe, one of these charlatans (medicine men), whose Manitou, or great spirit which he worshiped, was the buffalo. After leading him on insensibly to the avowal that it was not the buffalo that he worshiped, but the Manitou, or spirit, of the buffalo, which was under the earth and animated all buffaloes, which heals the sick and has all power, I asked him whether other beasts, the bear for instance, and which one of his nation worshiped, was not equally inhabited by a Manitou, which was under the earth. 'Without doubt,' said the grand medicine man. 'If this is so,' said I, 'men ought to have a Manitou who inhabits them.' 'Nothing more certain,' said he. 'Ought not that to convince you,' continued I, 'that you are not very reasonable? For if man upon the earth is the master of all animals, if he kills them, if he eats them, does it not follow that the Manitou which inhabits him must have a mastery over all other Manitous? Why then do you not invoke him instead of the Manitou of the bear and the buffalo, when you are sick?' This reasoning disconcerted the charlatan. But this was all the effect it produced."

The result of convincing these heathen by logic, as is generally the case the world over, was only a temporary logical victory, and no change whatever was produced in the professions and practices of the Indians.

But the first Christian (Catholic) missionary at this place whose name we find recorded in the Church annals, was Meurin, in 1847.

The church building used by these early missionaries at Vincennes is thus described by the "oldest inhabitants": Fronting on Water street and running back on Church street, it was a plain building with a rough exterior, of upright posts, chinked and daubed, with a rough coat of cement on the outside; about 20 feet wide and 60 long; one story high, with a small belfry and an equally small bell. It was dedicated to St. Francis Xavier. This spot is now occupied by a splendid cathedral.

Vincennes has ever been a stronghold of Catholicism. The Church there has educated and sent out many clergymen of her faith, some of whom have become bishops, or attained other high positions in ecclesiastical authority.

Almost contemporaneous with the progress of the Church at Vincennes was a missionary work near the mouth of the Wea river, among the Ojibweons, but the settlement there was broken up in an early day.

NATIONAL POLICIES.

THE GREAT FRENCH SCHEME.

Soon after the discovery of the mouth of the Mississippi by LaSalle in 1682, the government of France began to encourage the policy of establishing a line of trading posts and missionary stations extending through the West from Canada to Louisiana, and this policy was maintained, with partial success, for about 75 years. The traders persisted in importing whisky, which cancelled nearly every civilizing influence that could be brought to bear upon the Indian, and the vast distances between posts prevented that strength which can be enjoyed only by close and convenient intercommunication. Another characteristic of Indian nature was to listen attentively to all the missionary said, pretending to believe all he preached, and then offer in turn his theory of the world, of religion, etc., and because he was not listened to with the same degree of attention and pretense of belief, would go off disgusted. This was his idea of the golden rule.

The river St. Joseph of Lake Michigan was called "the river Miamis" in 1679, in which year LaSalle built a small fort on its bank, near the lake shore. The principal station of the mission for the instruction of the Miamis was established on the borders of this river. The first French post within the territory of the Miamis was at the mouth of the river Miamis, on an eminence naturally fortified on two sides by the river, and on one side by a deep ditch made by a fall of water. It was of triangular form. The missionary Hennepin gives a good description of it, as he was one of the company who built it, in 1679. Says he: "We fell the trees that were on the top of the hill; and having cleared the same from bushes for about two musket shot, we began to build a redoubt of 80 feet long and 40 feet broad, with great square pieces of timber laid one upon another, and prepared a great number of

stakes of about 25 feet long to drive into the ground, to make our fort more inaccessible on the river side. We employed the whole month of November about that work, which was very hard, though we had no other food but the bear's flesh our savage killed. These beasts are very common in that place because of the great quantity of grapes they find there; but their flesh being too fat and luscious, our men began to be weary of it and desired leave to go a hunting to kill some wild goats. M. LaSalle denied them that liberty, which caused some murmurs among them; and it was but unwillingly that they continued their work. This, together with the approach of winter and the apprehension that M. LaSalle had that his vessel (the Griffin) was lost, made him very melancholy, though he concealed it as much as he could. We made a cabin wherein we performed divine service every Sunday, and Father Gabriel and I, who preached alternately, took care to take such texts as were suitable to our present circumstances and fit to inspire us with courage, concord and brotherly love. * * * The fort was at last perfected, and called Fort Miami.

In the year 1711 the missionary Chardon, who was said to be very zealous and apt in the acquisition of languages, had a station on the St. Joseph about 60 miles above the mouth. Charlevoix, another distinguished missionary from France, visited a post on this river in 1721. In a letter dated at the place, Aug. 16, he says: "There is a commandant here, with a small garrison. His house, which is but a very sorry one, is called the fort, from its being surrounded with an indifferent palisado, which is pretty near the case in all the rest. We have here two villages of Indians, one of the Miamis and the other of the Pottawatomies, both of them mostly Christians; but as they have been for a long time without any pastors, the missionary who has been lately sent to them will have no small difficulty in bringing them back to the exercise of their religion." He speaks also of the main commodity for which the Indians would part with their goods, namely, spirituous liquors, which they drink and keep drunk upon as long as a supply lasted. More than a century and a half has now passed since Charlevoix penned the above, without any change whatever in this trait of Indian character.

In 1765 the Miami nation, or confederacy, was composed of four tribes, whose total number of warriors was estimated at only 1,050 men. Of these about 250 were Twightwees, or Miamis proper, 300 Weas, or Ojibawons, 300 Piankeshaws and 200 Shokeys; and at this time the principal villages of the

Twightwees were situated about the head of the Maumee river at and near the place where Fort Wayne now is. The larger Wea villages were near the banks of the Wabash river, in the vicinity of the Post Oniatenon; and the Shockeys and Piankeshaws dwelt on the banks of the Vermillion and on the borders of the Wabash between Vincennes and Oniatenon. Branches of the Pottawatomie, Shawnee, Delaware and Kickapoo tribes were permitted at different times to enter within the boundaries of the Miamis and reside for a while.

The wars in which France and England were engaged, from 1688 to 1697, retarded the growth of the colonies of those nations in North America, and the efforts made by France to connect Canada and the Gulf of Mexico by a chain of trading posts and colonies naturally excited the jealousy of England and gradually laid the foundation for a struggle at arms. After several stations were established elsewhere in the West, trading posts were started at the Miami villages, which stood at the head of the Maumee, at the Wea villages about Oniatenon on the Wabash, and at the Piankeshaw villages about the present site of Vincennes. It is probable that before the close of the year 1719, temporary trading posts were erected at the sites of Fort Wayne, Oniatenon and Vincennes. These points were probably often visited by French fur traders prior to 1700. In the meanwhile the English people in this country commenced also to establish military posts west of the Alleghanies, and thus matters went on until they naturally culminated in a general war, which, being waged by the French and Indians combined on one side, was called "the French and Indian war." This war was terminated in 1763 by a treaty at Paris, by which France ceded to Great Britain all of North America east of the Mississippi except New Orleans and the island on which it is situated; and indeed, France had the preceding autumn, by a secret convention, ceded to Spain all the country west of that river.

PONTIAC'S WAR.

In 1762, after Canada and its dependencies had been surrendered to the English, Pontiac and his partisans secretly organized a powerful confederacy in order to crush at one blow all English power in the West. This great scheme was skillfully projected and cautiously matured.

The principal act in the programme was to gain admittance into the fort at Detroit, on pretense of a friendly visit, with shortened muskets concealed under their blankets, and on a

given signal suddenly break forth upon the garrison; but an inadvertent remark of an Indian woman led to a discovery of the plot, which was consequently averted. Pontiac and his warriors afterward made many attacks upon the English, some of which were successful, but the Indians were finally defeated in the general war.

BRITISH POLICY.

In 1765 the total number of French families within the limits of the Northwestern Territory did not probably exceed 600. These were in settlements about Detroit, along the river Wabash and the neighborhood of Fort Chartres on the Mississippi. Of these families, about 80 or 90 resided at Post Vincennes, 14 at Fort Ouiatenon, on the Wabash, and nine or ten at the confluence of the St. Mary and St. Joseph rivers.

The colonial policy of the British government opposed any measures which might strengthen settlements in the interior of this country, lest they become self-supporting and independent of the mother country; hence the early and rapid settlement of the Northwestern territory was still further retarded by the short-sighted selfishness of England. That fatal policy consisted mainly in holding the land in the hands of the government and not allowing it to be subdivided and sold to settlers. But in spite of all her efforts in this direction, she constantly made just such efforts as provoked the American people to rebel, and to rebel successfully, which was within 15 years after the perfect close of the French and Indian war.

AMERICAN POLICY.

Thomas Jefferson, the shrewd statesman and wise Governor of Virginia, saw from the first that actual occupation of Western lands was the only way to keep them out of the hands of foreigners and Indians. Therefore, directly after the conquest of Vincennes by Clark, he engaged a scientific corps to proceed under an escort to the Mississippi, and ascertain by celestial observations the point on that river intersected by latitude $36^{\circ} 30'$, the southern limit of the State, and to measure its distance to the Ohio. To Gen. Clark was entrusted the conduct of the military operations in that quarter. He was instructed to select a strong position near that point and establish there a fort and garrison; thence to extend his conquests northward to the lakes, erecting forts at different points, which might serve as monuments of actual possession.

besides affording protection to that portion of the country. Fort "Jefferson" was erected and garrisoned on the Mississippi a few miles above the southern limit.

The result of these operations was the addition, to the chartered limits of Virginia, of that immense region known as the "Northwestern Territory." The simple fact that such and such forts were established by the Americans in this vast region convinced the British Commissioners that we had entitled ourselves to the land. But where are those "monuments" of our power now?

INDIAN SAVAGERY.

As a striking example of the inhuman treatment which the early Indians were capable of giving white people, we quote the following blood-curdling story from Mr. Cox's "Recollections of the Wabash Valley."

On the 11th of February, 1781, a wagoner named Irvin Hinton was sent from the block-house at Louisville, Ky., to Harrodsburg for a load of provisions for the fort. Two young men, Richard Rue and George Holman, aged respectively 19 and 16 years, were sent as guards to protect the wagon from the depredations of any hostile Indians who might be lurking in the cane-brakes or ravines through which they must pass. Soon after their start a severe snow-storm set in which lasted until afternoon. Lest the melting snow might dampen the powder in their rifles, the guards fired them off, intending to reload them as soon as the storm ceased. Hinton drove the horses while Rue walked a few rods ahead and Holman about the same distance behind. As they ascended a hill about eight miles from Louisville Hinton heard some one say Whoa to the horses. Supposing that something was wrong about the wagon, he stopped and asked Holman why he had called him to halt. Holman said that he had not spoken; Rue also denied it, but said that he had heard the voice distinctly. At this time a voice cried out, "I will solve the mystery for you; it was Simon Girty that cried Whoa, and he meant what he said,"—at the same time emerging from a sink-hole a few rods from the roadside, followed by 13 Indians, who immediately surrounded the three Kentuckians and demanded them to surrender or die instantly. The little party, making a virtue of necessity, surrendered to this renegade white man and his Indian allies.

Being so near two forts, Girty made all possible speed in making fast his prisoners, selecting the lines and other parts

of the harness, he prepared for an immediate flight across the Ohio. The pantaloons of the prisoners were cut off about four inches above the knees, and thus they started through the deep snow as fast as the horses could trot, leaving the wagon, containing a few empty barrels, standing in the road. They continued their march for several cold days, without fire at night, until they reached Wa-puc-ca-nat-ta, where they compelled their prisoners to run the gauntlet as they entered the village. Hinton first ran the gauntlet and reached the council-house after receiving several severe blows upon the head and shoulders. Rue next ran between the lines, pursued by an Indian with an uplifted tomahawk. He far outstripped his pursuer and dodged most of the blows aimed at him. Holman complaining that it was too severe a test for a worn-out strapping like himself, was allowed to run between two lines of squaws and boys, and was followed by an Indian with a long switch.

The first council of the Indians did not dispose of these young men; they were waiting for the presence of other chiefs and warriors. Hinton escaped, but on the afternoon of the second day he was re-captured. Now the Indians were glad that they had an occasion to indulge in the infernal joy of burning him at once. Soon after their supper, which they shared with their victim, they drove the stake into the ground, piled up the fagots in a circle around it, stripped and blackened the prisoner, tied him to the stake, and applied the torch. It was a slow fire. The war-whoop then thrilled through the dark surrounding forest like the chorus of a band of infernal spirits escaped from pandemonium, and the scalp dance was struck up by those demons in human shape, who for hours encircled their victim, brandishing their tomahawks and war clubs, and venting their execrations upon the helpless sufferer, who died about midnight from the effects of the slow heat. As soon as he fell upon the ground, the Indian who first discovered him in the woods that evening sprang in, sunk his tomahawk into his skull above the ear, and with his knife stripped off the scalp, which he bore back with him to the town as a trophy, and which was tauntingly thrust into the faces of Rue and Holman, with the question, "Can you smell the fire on the scalp of your red-headed friend? We cooked him and left him for the wolves to make a breakfast upon; that is the way we serve runaway prisoners."

After a march of three days more, the prisoners, Rue and Holman, had to run the gauntlets again, and barely got through with their lives. It was decided that they should both be burned at the stake that night, though this decision

was far from being unanimous. The necessary preparations were made, dry sticks and brush were gathered and piled around two stakes, the faces and hands of the doomed men were blackened in the customary manner, and as the evening approached the poor wretches sat looking upon the setting sun for the last time. An unusual excitement was manifest in a number of chiefs who still lingered about the council-house. At a pause in the contention, a noble-looking Indian approached the prisoners, and after speaking a few words to the guards, took Holman by the hand, lifted him to his feet, cut the cords that bound him to his fellow prisoners, removed the black from his face and hands, put his hand kindly upon his head and said: "I adopt you as my son, to fill the place of the one I have lately buried; you are now a kinsman of Logan, the white man's friend, as he has been called, but who has lately proven himself to be a terrible avenger of the wrongs inflicted upon him by the bloody Cresap and his men." With evident reluctance, Girty interpreted this to Holman, who was thus unexpectedly freed.

But the preparations for the burning of Rue went on. Holman and Rue embraced each other most affectionately, with a sorrow too deep for description. Rue was then tied to one of the stakes; but the general contention among the Indians had not ceased. Just as the lighted fagots were about to be applied to the dry brush piled around the devoted youth, a tall, active young Shawnee, a son of the victim's captor, sprang into the ring, and cutting the cords which bound him to the stake, led him out amidst the deafening plaudits of a part of the crowd and the execrations of the rest. Regardless of threats, he caused water to be brought and the black to be washed from the face and hands of the prisoner, whose clothes were then returned to him, when the young brave said: "I take this young man to be my brother, in the place of one I lately lost; I loved that brother well; I will love this one, too; my old mother will be glad when I tell her that I have brought her a son, in place of the dear departed one. We want no more victims. The burning of Red-head (Hinton) ought to satisfy us. These innocent young men do not merit such cruel fate; I would rather die myself than see this adopted brother burned at the stake."

A loud shout of approbation showed that the young Shawnee had triumphed, though dissension was manifest among the various tribes afterward. Some of them abandoned their trip to Detroit, others returned to Wa-puc-ca-nat-ta, a few turned toward the Mississinewa and the Wabash towns, while a por-

tion continued to Detroit. Holman was taken back to Wapuc-ca-nat-ta, where he remained most of the time of his captivity. Rue was taken first to the Mississinewa, then to the Wabash towns. Two years of his eventful captivity were spent in the region of the Wabash and Illinois rivers, but the last few months at Detroit; was in captivity altogether about three years and a half.

Rue effected his escape in the following manner: During one of the drunken revels of the Indians near Detroit one of them lost a purse of \$90; various tribes were suspected of feloniously keeping the treasure, and much ugly speculation was indulged in as to who was the thief. At length a prophet of a tribe that was not suspected was called to divine the mystery. He spread sand over a green deer-skin, watched it awhile and performed various manipulations, and professed to see that the money had been stolen and carried away by a tribe entirely different from any that had been suspicioned; but he was shrewd enough not to announce who the thief was or the tribe he belonged to, lest a war might arise. His decision quieted the belligerent uprisings threatened by the excited Indians.

Rue and two other prisoners saw this display of the prophet's skill and concluded to interrogate him soon concerning their families at home. The opportunity occurred in a few days, and the Indian seer actually astonished Rue with the accuracy with which he described his family, and added, "You all intend to make your escape, and you will effect it soon. You will meet with many trials and hardships in passing over so wild a district of country, inhabited by so many hostile nations of Indians. You will almost starve to death; but about the time you have given up all hope of finding game to sustain you in your famished condition, succor will come when you least expect it. The first game you will succeed in taking will be a male of some kind; after that you will have plenty of game and return home in safety."

The prophet kept this matter a secret for the prisoners, and the latter in a few days set off upon their terrible journey, and had just such experience as the Indian prophet had foretold; they arrived home with their lives, but were pretty well worn out with the exposures and privations of a three weeks' journey.

On the return of Holman's party of Indians to Wapuc-ca-nat-ta, much dissatisfaction existed in regard to the manner of his release from the sentence of condemnation pronounced against him by the council. Many were in favor of recalling

the council and trying him again, and this was finally agreed to. The young man was again put upon trial for his life, with a strong probability of his being condemned to the stake. Both parties worked hard for victory in the final vote, which eventually proved to give a majority of one for the prisoner's acquittal.

While with the Indians, Holman saw them burn at the stake a Kentuckian named Richard Hogeland, who had been taken prisoner at the defeat of Col. Crawford. They commenced burning him at nine o'clock at night, and continued roasting him until ten o'clock the next day, before he expired. During his excruciating tortures he begged for some of them to end his life and sufferings with a gun or tomahawk. Finally his cruel tormentors promised they would, and cut several deep gashes in his flesh with their tomahawks, and shoveled up hot ashes and embers and threw them into the gaping wounds. When he was dead they stripped off his scalp, cut him to pieces and burnt him to ashes, which they scattered through the town to expel the evil spirits from it.

After a captivity of about three years and a half, Holman saw an opportunity of going on a mission for the destitute Indians, namely, of going to Harrodsburg, Ky., where he had a rich uncle, from whom they could get what supplies they wanted. They let him go with a guard, but on arriving at Louisville, where Gen. Clark was in command, he was ransomed, and he reached home only three days after the arrival of Rue. Both these men lived to a good old age, terminating their lives at their home about two miles south of Richmond, Ind.

EXPEDITIONS OF COL. GEORGE ROGERS CLARK.

In the summer of 1778, Col. George Rogers Clark, a native of Albemarle county, Va., led a memorable expedition against the ancient French settlements about Kaskaskia and Post Vincennes. With respect to the magnitude of its design, the valor and perseverance with which it was carried on, and the memorable results which were produced by it, this expedition stands without a parallel in the early annals of the valley of the Mississippi. That portion of the West called Kentucky was occupied by Henderson & Co., who pretended to own the land and who held it at a high price. Col. Clark wished to test the validity of their claim and adjust the government of the country so as to encourage immigration. He accordingly called a meeting of the citizens at Harrodstown, to assemble June 6, 1776, and consider the claims of the company and consult with reference to the interest of the country. He did not at first publish the exact aim of this movement, lest parties would be formed in advance and block the enterprise; also, if the object of the meeting were not announced beforehand, the curiosity of the people to know what was to be proposed would bring out a much greater attendance.

The meeting was held on the day appointed, and delegates were elected to treat with the government of Virginia, to see whether it would be best to become a county in that State and be protected by it, etc. Various delays on account of the remoteness of the white settlers from the older communities of Virginia and the hostility of Indians in every direction, prevented a consummation of this object until some time in 1778. The government of Virginia was friendly to Clark's enterprise to a certain extent, but claimed that they had not authority to do much more than to lend a little assistance for which payment should be made at some future time, as it was not certain whether Kentucky would become a part of Virginia or not. Gov. Henry and a few gentlemen were individually so hearty in favor of Clark's benevolent undertaking that they assisted him all they could. Accordingly Mr. Clark organized his expedition, keeping every particular secret lest powerful parties would form in the West against him. He took in stores at Pittsburg and Wheeling, proceeded down the Ohio to the "Falls," where he took possession of an island of about seven

acres, and divided it among a small number of families, for whose protection he constructed some light fortifications. At this time Post Vincennes comprised about 400 militia, and it was a daring undertaking for Col. Clark, with his small force, to go up against it and Kaskaskia, as he had planned. Indeed, some of his men, on hearing of his plan, deserted him. He conducted himself so as to gain the sympathy of the French, and through them also that of the Indians to some extent, as both these people were very bitter against the British, who had possession of the Lake Region.

From the nature of the situation Clark concluded it was best to take Kaskaskia first. The fact that the people regarded him as a savage rebel, he regarded as really a good thing in his favor; for after the first victory he would show them so much unexpected lenity that they would rally to his standard. In this policy he was indeed successful. He arrested a few men and put them in irons. The priest of the village, accompanied by five or six aged citizens, waited on Clark and said that the inhabitants expected to be separated, perhaps never to meet again, and they begged to be permitted to assemble in their church to take leave of each other. Clark mildly replied that he had nothing against their religion, that they might continue to assemble in their church, but not venture out of town, etc. Thus, by what has since been termed the "Rarey" method of taming horses, Clark showed them he had power over them but designed them no harm, and they readily took the oath of allegiance to Virginia.

After Clark's arrival at Kaskaskia it was difficult to induce the French settlers to accept the "Continental paper" introduced by him and his troops. Nor until Col. Vigo arrived there and guaranteed its redemption would they receive it. Peltries and piastres formed the only currency, and Vigo found great difficulty in explaining Clark's financial arrangements. "Their commandants never made money," was the reply to Vigo's explanation of the policy of the old Dominion. But notwithstanding the guarantees, the Continental paper fell very low in the market. Vigo had a trading establishment at Kaskaskia, where he sold coffee at one dollar a pound, and all the other necessities of life at an equally reasonable price. The unsophisticated Frenchmen were generally asked in what kind of money they would pay their little bills. "Douleur," was the general reply; and as an authority on the subject says, "It took about twenty Continental dollars to purchase a silver dollar's worth of coffee; and as the French word "*douleur*" signifies grief or pain, perhaps no other word either in the

French or English languages expressed the idea more correctly than the *douleur* for a Continental dollar. At any rate it was truly *doulcur* to the Colonel, for he never received a single dollar in exchange for the large amount taken from him in order to sustain Clark's credit.

Now, the post at Vincennes, defended by Fort Sackville, came next. The priest just mentioned, Mr. Gibault, was really friendly to "the American interest;" he had spiritual charge of the church at Vincennes, and he with several others were deputed to assemble the people there and authorize them to garrison their own fort like a free and independent people, etc. This plan had its desired effect, and the people took the oath of allegiance to the State of Virginia and became citizens of the United States. Their style of language and conduct changed to a better hue, and they surprised the numerous Indians in the vicinity by displaying a new flag and informing them that their old father, the King of France, was come to life again, and was mad at them for fighting the English; and they advised them to make peace with the Americans as soon as they could, otherwise they might expect to make the land very bloody, etc. The Indians concluded they would have to fall in line, and they offered no resistance. Capt. Leonard Helm, an American, was left in charge of this post, and Clark began to turn his attention to other points. But before leaving this section of the country he made treaties of peace with the Indians; this he did, however, by a different method from what had always before been followed. By indirect methods he caused them to come to him, instead of going to them. He was convinced that inviting them to treaties was considered by them in a different manner from what the whites expected, and imputed them to fear, and that giving them great presents confirmed it. He accordingly established treaties with the Piankeshaws, Ouiatenons, Kickapoos, Illinois, Kaskaskias, Peorias and branches of some other tribes that inhabited the country between Lake Michigan and the Mississippi. Upon this the General Assembly of the State of Virginia declared all the citizens settled west of the Ohio organized into a county of that State, to be known as "Illinois" county; but before the provisions of the law could be carried into effect, Henry Hamilton, the British Lieutenant-Governor of Detroit, collected an army of about 30 regulars, 50 French volunteers and 400 Indians, went down and re-took the post Vincennes in December, 1778. No attempt was made by the population to defend the town. Capt. Helm and a man named Henry were the only Americans at the fort, the only members

of the garrison. Capt. Helm was taken prisoner and a number of the French inhabitants disarmed.

Col. Clark, hearing of the situation, determined to re-capture the place. He accordingly gathered together what force he could in this distant land, 170 men, and on the 5th of February, started from Kaskaskia and crossed the river of that name. The weather was very wet, and the low lands were pretty well covered with water. The march was difficult, and the Colonel had to work hard to keep his men in spirits. He suffered them to shoot game whenever they wished and eat it like Indian war-dancers, each company by turns inviting the others to their feasts, which was the case every night. Clark waded through water as much as any of them, and thus stimulated the men by his example. They reached the Little Wabash on the 13th, after suffering many and great hardships. Here a camp was formed, and without waiting to discuss plans for crossing the river, Clark ordered the men to construct a vessel, and pretended that crossing the stream would be only a piece of amusement, although inwardly he held a different opinion.

The second day afterward a reconnoitering party was sent across the river, who returned and made an encouraging report. A scaffolding was built on the opposite shore, upon which the baggage was placed as it was tediously ferried over, and the new camping ground was a nice half acre of dry land. There were many amusements, indeed, in getting across the river, which put all the men in high spirits. The succeeding two or three days they had to march through a great deal of water, having on the night of the 17th to encamp in the water, near the Big Wabash.

At daybreak on the 18th they heard the signal gun at Vincennes, and at once commenced their march. Reaching the Wabash about two o'clock, they constructed rafts to cross the river on a boat-stealing expedition, but labored all day and night to no purpose. On the 19th they began to make a canoe, in which a second attempt to steal boats was made, but this expedition returned, reporting that there were two "large fires" within a mile of them. Clark sent a canoe down the river to meet the vessel that was supposed to be on her way up with the supplies, with orders to hasten forward day and night. This was their last hope, as their provisions were entirely gone, and starvation seemed to be hovering about them. The next day they commenced to make more canoes, when about noon the sentinel on the river brought a boat with five Frenchmen from the fort. From this party they learned that

they were not as yet discovered. All the army crossed the river in two canoes the next day, and as Clark had determined to reach the town that night, he ordered his men to move forward. They plunged into the water sometimes to the neck, for over three miles.

Without food, benumbed with cold, up to their waists in water, covered with broken ice, the men at one time mutinied and refused to march. All the persuasions of Clark had no effect upon the half-starved and half-frozen soldiers. In one company was a small drummer boy, and also a sergeant who stood six feet two inches in socks, and stout and athletic. He was devoted to Clark. The General mounted the little drummer on the shoulders of the stalwart sergeant and ordered him to plunge into the water, half-frozen as it was. He did so, the little boy beating the charge from his lofty perch, while Clark, sword in hand, followed them, giving the command as he threw aside the floating ice, "Forward." Elated and amused with the scene, the men promptly obeyed, holding their rifles above their heads, and in spite of all the obstacles they reached the high land in perfect safety. But for this and the ensuing days of this campaign we quote from Clark's account:

"This last day's march through the water was far superior to anything the Frenchmen had any idea of. They were backward in speaking; said that the nearest land to us was a small league, a sugar camp on the bank of the river. A canoe was sent off and returned without finding that we could pass. I went in her myself and sounded the water and found it as deep as to my neck. I returned with a design to have the men transported on board the canoes to the sugar camp, which I knew would expend the whole day and ensuing night, as the vessels would pass slowly through the bushes. The loss of so much time to men half starved was a matter of consequence. I would have given now a great deal for a day's provision, or for one of our horses. I returned but slowly to the troops, giving myself time to think. On our arrival all ran to hear what was the report; every eye was fixed on me; I unfortunately spoke in a serious manner to one of the officers. The whole were alarmed without knowing what I said. I viewed their confusion for about one minute; I whispered to those near me to do as I did, immediately put some water in my hand, poured on powder, blackened my face, gave the war-whoop, and marched into the water without saying a word. The party gazed and fell in, one after another without saying a word, like a flock of sheep. I ordered those near me to begin a favorite song of theirs; it soon passed through the line and the whole went on cheerfully.

"I now intended to have them transported across the deepest part of the water; but when about waist-deep, one of the men informed me that he thought he felt a path; we examined and found it so, and concluded that it kept on the highest ground, which it did, and by taking pains to follow it, we got to the sugar camp with no difficulty, where there was about half an acre of dry ground,—at least ground not under water, and there we took up our lodging.

* * * *

"The night had been colder than any we had had, and the ice in the morning was one-half or three-quarters of an inch thick in still water; the morning was the finest. A little after sunrise I lectured the whole; what I said to them I forget, but I concluded by informing them that passing the plain then in full view, and reaching the opposite woods would put an end to their fatigue; that in a few hours they would have a sight of their long wished-for object; and immediately stepped into the water without waiting for any reply. A huzza took place. As we generally marched through the water in a line, before the third man entered, I called to Major Bowman, ordering him to fall in the rear of the 25 men, and put to death any man who refused to march. This met with a cry of approbation and on we went. Getting about the middle of the plain, the water about middeep, I found myself sensibly failing; and as there were no trees nor bushes for the men to support themselves by, I feared that many of the weak would be drowned. I ordered the canoes to make the land, discharge their loading, and play backward and forward with all diligence and pick up the men; and to encourage the party, sent some of the strongest men forward, with orders when they got to a certain distance, to pass the word back that the water was getting shallow, and when getting near the woods, to cry out land. This stratagem had its desired effect; the men exerted themselves almost beyond their abilities, the weak holding by the stronger. The water, however, did not become shallower, but continued deepening. Getting to the woods where the men expected land, the water was up to my shoulders; but gaining the woods was of great consequence; all the low men and weakly hung to the trees and floated on the old logs until they were taken off by the canoes; the strong and tall got ashore and built fires. Many would reach the shore and fall with their bodies half in the water, not being able to support themselves without it.

"This was a dry and delightful spot of ground of about ten acres. Fortunately, as if designed by Providence, a canoe of

Indian squaws and children was coming up to town, and took through this part of the plain as a high way; it was discovered by our canoe-men as they were out after the other men. They gave chase and took the Indian canoe, on board of which was nearly half a quarter of buffalo, some corn, tallow, kettles, etc. This was an invaluable prize. Broth was immediately made and served out, especially to the weakly; nearly all of us got a little; but a great many gave their part to the weakly, saying something cheering to their comrades. By the afternoon, this refreshment and fine weather had greatly invigorated the whole party.

"Crossing a narrow and deep lake in the canoes, and marching some distance, we came to a copse of timber called 'Warrior's Island.' We were now in full view of the fort and town; it was about two miles distant, with not a shrub intervening. Every man now feasted his eyes and forgot that he had suffered anything, saying that all which had passed was owing to good policy, and nothing but what a man could bear, and that a soldier had no right to think, passing from one extreme to the other,—which is common in such cases. And now stratagem was necessary. The plain between us and the town was not a perfect level; the sunken grounds were covered with water full of ducks. We observed several men within a half a mile of us shooting ducks, and sent out some of our active young Frenchmen to take one of these men prisoners without alarming the rest, which they did. The information we got from this person was similar to that which we got from those taken on the river, except that of the British having that evening completed the wall of the fort, and that there were a great many Indians in town.

"Our situation was now critical. No possibility of retreat in case of defeat, and in full view of a town containing at this time more than 600 men, troops, inhabitants and Indians. The crew of the galley, though not 50 men, would have been now a re-enforcement of immense magnitude to our little army, if I may so call it, but we would not think of them. We were now in the situation that I had labored to get ourselves in. The idea of being made prisoner was foreign to almost every man, as they expected nothing but torture from the savages if they fell into their hands. Our fate was now to be determined, probably in a few hours; we knew that nothing but the most daring conduct would insure success; I knew also that a number of the inhabitants wished us well. This was a favorable circumstance; and as there was but little probability of our remaining until dark undiscovered, I determined to begin op-

erations immediately, and therefore wrote the following placard to the inhabitants:

To the Inhabitants of Post Vincennes.

Gentlemen:—Being now within two miles of your village with my army, determined to take your fort this night, and not being willing to surprise you, I take this method to request such of you as are true citizens and willing to enjoy the liberty I bring you, to remain still in your houses; and those, if any there be, that are friends to the king, will instantly repair to the fort and join the hair-buyer general and fight like men; and if any such as do not go to the fort shall be discovered afterward, they may depend on severe punishment. On the contrary, those who are true friends to liberty may depend on being well treated; and I once more request them to keep out of the streets; for every one I find in arms on my arrival I shall treat as an enemy.

(Signed)

G. R. CLARK.

"I had various ideas on the results of this letter. I knew it could do us no damage, but that it would cause the lukewarm to be decided, and encourage our friends and astonish our enemies. We anxiously viewed this messenger until he entered the town, and in a few minutes we discovered by our glasses some stir in every street we could penetrate, and great numbers running or riding out into the commons, we supposed to view us, which was the case. But what surprised us was that nothing had yet happened that had the appearance of the garrison being alarmed,—neither gun nor drum. We began to suppose that the information we got from our prisoners was false, and that the enemy had already knew of us, and were prepared. A little before sunset we displayed ourselves in full view of the town,—crowds gazing at us. We were plunging ourselves into certain destruction or success; there was no midway thought of. We had but little to say to our men, except inculcating an idea of the necessity of obedience, &c. We moved on slowly in full view of the town; but as it was a point of some consequence to us to make ourselves appear formidable, we, leaving the covert we were in, marched and counter-marched in such a manner that we appeared numerous. Our colors were displayed to the best advantage; and as the low plain we marched through was not a perfect level, but had frequent risings in it, of 7 or 8 higher than the common level, which was covered with water; and as these ris-

ings generally run in an oblique direction to the town, we took advantage of one of them, marching through the water by it, which completely prevented our being numbered. We gained the heights back of the town. As there were as yet no hostile appearance, we were impatient to have the cause unriddled. Lieut. Bayley was ordered with 14 men to march and fire on the fort; the main body moved in a different direction and took possession of the strongest part of the town."

Clark then sent a written order to Hamilton commanding him to surrender immediately or he would be treated as a murderer; Hamilton replied that he and his garrison were not disposed to be awed into any action unworthy of British subjects. After one hour more of fighting, Hamilton proposed a truce of three days for conference, on condition that each side cease all defensive work; Clark rejoined that he would "not agree to any terms other than Mr. Hamilton surrendering himself and garrison prisoners at discretion," and added that if he, Hamilton, wished to talk with him he could meet him immediately at the church with Capt. Helm. In less than an hour Clark dictated the terms of surrender, Feb. 24, 1779. Hamilton agreed to the total surrender because, as he there claimed in writing, he "was too far from aid from his own government, and because of the "unanimity" of his officers in the surrender, and his "confidence in a generous enemy."

"Of this expedition, of its results, of its importance, of the merits of those engaged in it, of their bravery, their skill, of their prudence, of their success, a volume would not more than suffice for the details. Suffice it to say that in my opinion, and I have accurately and critically weighed and examined all the results produced by the contests in which we were engaged during the Revolutionary war, that for bravery, for hardships endured, for skill and consummate tact and prudence on the part of the commander, obedience, discipline and love of country on the part of his followers, for the immense benefits acquired and signal advantages obtained by it for the whole union, it was second to no enterprise undertaken during that struggle. I might add, second to no undertaking in ancient or modern warfare. The whole credit of this conquest belongs to two men; Gen. George Rogers Clark and Col. Francis Vigo. And when we consider that by it the whole territory now covered by the three great states of Indiana, Illinois and Michigan was added to the union, and so admitted to be by the British commissioners at the preliminaries to the treaty of peace in 1783; (and but for this very conquest the boundaries of our territories west would have been the Ohio instead of

the Mississippi, and so acknowledged by both our commissioners and the British at that conference;) a territory embracing upward of 2,000,000 people, the human mind is lost in the contemplation of its effects; and we can but wonder that a force of 170 men, the whole number of Clark's troops, should by this single action have produced such important results."—John Law.

The next day Clark sent a detachment of 60 men up the river Wabash to intercept some boats which were laden with provisions and goods from Detroit. This force was placed under command of Capt. Helm, Major Bosseron and Major Legras, and they proceeded up the river in three armed boats, about 120 miles, when the British boats, about seven in number, were surprised and captured without firing a gun. These boats which had on board about \$50,000 worth of goods and provisions, were manned by about 40 men, among whom was Philip Dejean, a magistrate of Detroit. The provisions were taken for the public, and distributed among the soldiery.

Having organized a military government at Vincennes and appointed Capt. Helm commandant of the town, Col. Clark returned in the vessel to Kaskaskia, where he was joined by reinforcements from Kentucky under Capt. George. Meanwhile, a party of traders who were going to the falls, were killed and plundered by the Delawares of White River; the news of this disaster having reached Clark, he sent a dispatch to Capt. Helm ordering him to make war on the Delawares and use every means in his power to destroy them; to show no mercy to the men, but to save the women and children. This order was executed without delay. Their camps were attacked in every quarter where they could be found. Many fell, and others were carried to Post Vincennes and put to death. The surviving Delawares at once pleaded for mercy and appeared anxious to make some atonement for their bad conduct. To these overtures Capt. Helm replied that Col. Clark, the "Big Knife," had ordered the war, and that he had no power to lay down the hatchet, but that he would suspend hostilities until a messenger could be sent to Kaskaskia. This was done, and the crafty Colonel, well understanding the Indian character, sent a message to the Delawares telling them that he would not accept their friendship or treat with them for peace; but that if they could get some of the neighboring tribes to become responsible for their future conduct, he would discontinue the war and spare their lives; otherwise they must all perish.

Accordingly a council was called of all the Indians in the

neighborhood, and Clark's answer was read to the assembly. After due deliberation the Piankeshaws took on themselves to answer for the future good conduct of the Delawares, and the "Grand Door" in a long speech denounced their base conduct. This ended the war with the Delawares and secured the respect of the neighboring tribes.

Clark's attention was next turned to the British post at Detroit, but being unable to obtain sufficient troops he abandoned the enterprise.

CLARK'S INGENIOUS RUSE AGAINST THE INDIANS.

Tradition says that when Clark captured Hamilton and his garrison at Fort Sackville, he took possession of the fort and kept the British flag flying, dressed his sentinels with the uniform of the British soldiery, and let everything about the premises remain as they were, so that when the Indians sympathizing with the British arrived they would walk right into the citadel, into the jaws of death. His success was perfect. Sullen and silent, with the scalplock of his victims hanging at his girdle, and in full expectation of his reward from Hamilton, the unwary savage, unconscious of danger and wholly ignorant of the change that had just been effected in his absence, passed the supposed British sentry at the gate of the fort, unmolested and unchallenged; but as soon as in, a volley from the rifles of a platoon of Clark's men, drawn up and awaiting his coming, pierced their hearts and sent the unconscious savage, reeking with murder, to that tribunal to which he had so frequently, by order of the hair-buyer general, sent his American captives, from the infant in the cradle to the grandfather of the family, tottering with age and infirmity. It was a just retribution, and few men but Clark would have planned such a ruse or carried it out successfully. It is reported that fifty Indians met this fate within the fort; and probably Hamilton, a prisoner there, witnessed it all.

SUBSEQUENT CAREER OF HAMILTON.

Henry Hamilton, who had acted as Lieutenant and Governor of the British possessions under Sir George Carleton, was sent forward, with two other prisoners of war, Dejean and LaMothe, to Williamsburg, Va., early in June following, 1779. Proclamations, in his own handwriting, were found, in which he had offered a specific sum for every American scalp brought into the camp, either by his own troops or his allies.

the Indians; and from this he was denominated the "hair-buyer General." This and much other testimony of living witnesses at the time all showed what a savage he was. Thomas Jefferson, then Governor of Virginia, being made aware of the inhumanity of this wretch, concluded to resort to a little retaliation by way of closer confinement. Accordingly he ordered that these three prisoners be put in irons, confined in a dungeon, deprived of the use of pen, ink and paper, and be excluded from all conversation except with their keeper. Major General Phillips, a British officer out on parole in the vicinity of Charlottesville, where the prisoners now were, in closer confinement, remonstrated, and President Washington, while approving of Jefferson's course, requested a mitigation of the severe order, lest the British be goaded to desperate measures.

Soon afterward Hamilton was released on parole, and he subsequently appeared in Canada, still acting as if he had jurisdiction in the United States.

GIBAULT.

The faithful, self-sacrificing and patriotic services of Father Pierre Gibault in behalf of the Americans require a special notice of him in this connection. He was the parish priest at Vincennes, as well as at Kaskaskia. He was, at an early period, a Jesuit missionary to the Illinois. Had it not been for the influence of this man, Clark could not have obtained the influence of the citizens at either place. He gave all his property, to the value of 1500 Spanish milled dollars, to the support of Col. Clark's troops, and never received a single dollar in return. So far as the records inform us, he was given 1500 Continental paper dollars, which proved in the end entirely valueless. He modestly petitioned from the Government a small allowance of land at Cahokia, but we find no account of his ever receiving it. He was dependent upon the public in his older days, and in 1790 Winthrop Sargent "conceded" to him a lot of about "14 toises, one side to Mr. Millet, another to Mr. Vaudrey, and to two streets,"—a vague description of land.

VIGO.

Col. Francis Vigo was born in Mondovì, in the kingdom of Sardinia, in 1747. He left his parents and guardians at a very early age, and enlisted in a Spanish regiment as a soldier. The regiment was ordered to Havana, and a detach-

ment of it subsequently to New Orleans, then a Spanish post. Col. Vigo accompanied this detachment. But he left the army and engaged in trading with the Indians on the Arkansas and its tributaries. Next he settled at St. Louis, also a Spanish post, where he became closely connected, both in friendship and business, with the Governor of Upper Louisiana, then residing at the same place. This friendship he enjoyed, though he could only write his name; and we have many circumstantial evidences that he was a man of high intelligence, honor, purity of heart, and ability. Here he was living when Clark captured Kaskaskia, and was extensively engaged in trading up the Missouri.

A Spaniard by birth and allegiance, he was under no obligation to assist the Americans. Spain was at peace with Great Britain, and any interference by her citizens was a breach of neutrality, and subjected an individual, especially one of the high character and standing of Col. Vigo, to all the contumely, loss and vengeance which British power could inflict. But Col. Vigo did not falter. With an innate love of liberty, an attachment to Republican principles, and an ardent sympathy for an oppressed people struggling for their rights, he overlooked all personal consequences, and as soon as he learned of Clark's arrival at Kaskaskia, he crossed the line and went to Clark and tendered him his means and influence, both of which were joyfully accepted.

Knowing Col. Vigo's influence with the ancient inhabitants of the country, and desirous of obtaining some information from Vincennes, from which he had not heard for several months, Col. Clark proposed to him that he might go to that place and learn the actual state of affairs. Vigo went without hesitation, but on the Embarrass river he was seized by a party of Indians, plundered of all he possessed, and brought a prisoner before Hamilton, then in possession of the post, which he had a short time previously captured, holding Capt. Helm a prisoner of war. Being a Spanish subject, and consequently a non-combatant, Gov. Hamilton, although he strongly suspected the motives of the visit, dared not confine him, but admitted him to parole, on the single condition that he should daily report himself at the fort. But Hamilton was embarrassed by his detention, being besieged by the inhabitants of the town, who loved Vigo and threatened to withdraw their support from the garrison if he would not release him. Father Gibault was the chief pleader for Vigo's release. Hamilton finally yielded, on condition that he, Vigo, would do no injury to the British interests on his way to St.

Louis. He went to St. Louis, sure enough, doing no injury to British interests, but immediately returned to Kaskaskia and reported to Clark in detail all he had learned at Vincennes, without which knowledge Clark would have been unable to accomplish his famous expedition to that post with final triumph. The redemption of this country from the British is due as much, probably, to Col. Vigo as Col. Clark.

GOVERNMENT OF THE NORTHWEST.

Col. John Todd, Lieutenant for the county of Illinois, in the spring of 1779 visited the old settlements at Vincennes and Kaskaskia, and organized temporary civil governments in nearly all the settlements west of the Ohio. Previous to this, however, Clark had established a military government at Kaskaskia and Vincennes, appointed commandants in both places and taken up his headquarters at the falls of the Ohio, where he could watch the operations of the enemy and save the frontier settlements from the depredations of Indian warfare. On reaching the settlements, Col. Todd issued a proclamation regulating the settlement of unoccupied lands and requiring the presentation of all claims to the lands settled, as the number of adventurers who would shortly overrun the country would be serious. He also organized a Court of civil and criminal jurisdiction at Vincennes, in the month of June, 1779. This Court was composed of several magistrates and presided over by Col. J. M. P. Legras, who had been appointed commandant at Vincennes. Acting from the precedents established by the early French commandants in the West, this Court began to grant tracts of land to the French and American inhabitants; and to the year 1783, it had granted to different parties about 26,000 acres of land; 22,000 more was granted in this manner by 1787, when the practice was prohibited by Gen. Harmer. These tracts varied in size from a house lot to 500 acres. Besides this loose business, the Court entered into a stupendous speculation, one not altogether creditable to its honor and dignity. The commandant and the magistrates under him suddenly adopted the opinion that they were invested with the authority to dispose of the whole of that large region which in 1842 had been granted by the Piankeshaws to the French inhabitants of Vincennes. Accordingly a very convenient arrangement was entered into by which the whole tract of country mentioned was to be divided between the members of the honorable Court. A record was made to that

effect, and in order to gloss over the steal, each member took pains to be absent from Court on the day that the order was made in his favor.

In the fall of 1780 La Balue, a Frenchman, made an attempt to capture the British garrison of Detroit by leading an expedition against it from Kaskaskia. At the head of 30 men he marched to Vincennes, where his force was slightly increased. From this place he proceeded to the British trading post at the head of the Maumee, where Fort Wayne now stands, plundered the British traders and Indians and then retired. While encamped on the bank of a small stream on his retreat, he was attacked by a band of Miamis, a number of his men were killed, and his expedition against Detroit was ruined.

In this manner border war continued between Americans and their enemies, with varying victory, until 1783, when the treaty of Paris was concluded, resulting in the establishment of the independence of the United States. Up to this time the territory now included in Indiana belonged by conquest to the State of Virginia; but in January, 1783, the General Assembly of that State resolved to cede to the Congress of the United States all the territory northwest of the Ohio. The conditions offered by Virginia were accepted by Congress Dec. 20, that year, and early in 1784 the transfer was completed. In 1783 Virginia had platted the town of Clarksville, at the falls of the Ohio. The deed of cession provided that the territory should be laid out into States, containing a suitable extent of territory not less than 100 nor more than 150 miles square, or as near thereto as circumstances would permit; and that the States so formed shall be distinct Republican States and admitted members of the Federal Union, having the same rights of sovereignty, freedom and independence as the other States. The other conditions of the deed were as follows: That the necessary and reasonable expenses incurred by Virginia in subduing any British post, or in maintaining forts and garrisons within and for the defense, or in acquiring any part of the territory so ceded or relinquished, shall be fully reimbursed by the United States; that the French and Canadian inhabitants and other settlers of the Kaskaskia, Post Vincennes and the neighboring villages who have professed themselves citizens of Virginia, shall have their titles and possessions confirmed to them, and be protected in the enjoyment of their rights and privileges; that a quantity not exceeding 150,000 acres of land, promised by Virginia, shall be allowed and granted to the then Colonel, now General, George Rogers Clark, and to the officers and soldiers of his regiment.

who marched with him when the posts of Kaskaskia and Vincennes were reduced, and to the officers and soldiers that have been since incorporated into the said regiment, to be laid off in one tract, the length of which not to exceed double the breadth, in such a place on the northwest side of the Ohio as a majority of the officers shall choose, and to be afterward divided among the officers and soldiers in due proportion according to the laws of Virginia; that in case the quantity of good lands on the southeast side of the Ohio, upon the waters of Cumberland river, and between Green river and Tennessee river, which have been reserved by law for the Virginia troops upon Continental establishment, should, from the North Carolina line, bearing in further upon the Cumberland lands than was expected, prove insufficient for their legal bounties, the deficiency shall be made up to the said troops in good lands to be laid off between the rivers Scioto and Little Miami, on the northwest side of the river Ohio, in such proportions as have been engaged to them by the laws of Virginia; that all the lands within the territory so ceded to the United States, and not reserved for or appropriated to any of the before-mentioned purposes, or disposed of in bounties to the officers and soldiers of the American army, shall be considered as a common fund for the use and benefit of such of the United States as have become, or shall become, members of the confederation or federal alliance of the said States, Virginia included, according to their usual respective proportions in the general charge and expenditure, and shall be faithfully and *bona fide* disposed of for that purpose and for no other use or purpose whatever.

After the above deed of cession had been accepted by Congress, in the spring of 1784, the matter of the future government of the territory was referred to a committee consisting of Messrs. Jefferson of Virginia, Chase of Maryland and Howell of Rhode Island, which committee reported an ordinance for its government, providing, among other things, that slavery should not exist in said territory after 1800, except as punishment of criminals; but this article of the ordinance was rejected, and an ordinance for the temporary government of the county was adopted. In 1785 laws were passed by Congress for the disposition of lands in the territory and prohibiting the settlement of unappropriated lands by reckless speculators. But human passion is ever strong enough to evade the law to some extent, and large associations, representing considerable means, were formed for the purpose of monopolizing the land business. Millions of acres were sold at one

time by Congress to associations on the installment plan and so far as the Indian titles could be extinguished, the work of settling and improving the lands was pushed rapidly forward.

ORDINANCE OF 1787.

This ordinance has a marvelous and interesting history. Considerable controversy has been indulged in as to who is entitled to the credit for framing it. This belongs, undoubtedly, to Nathan Dane; and to Rufus King and Timothy Pickens belong the credit for suggesting the proviso contained in it against slavery, and also for aids to religion and knowledge, and for assuring forever the common use, without charge, of the great national highways of the Mississippi, the St. Lawrence and their tributaries to all the citizens of the United States. To Thomas Jefferson is also due much credit, as some features of this ordinance were embraced in his ordinance of 1784. But the part taken by each in the long, laborious and eventful struggle which had so glorious a consummation in the ordinance, consecrating forever, by one imprescriptible and unchangeable monument, the very heart of our country to Freedom, Knowledge, and Union, will forever honor the names of those illustrious statesmen.

Mr. Jefferson had vainly tried to secure a system of government for the Northwestern territory. He was an emancipationist and favored the exclusion of slavery from the territory, but the South voted him down every time he proposed a measure of this nature. In 1787, as late as July 10, an organizing act without the anti-slavery clause was pending. This concession to the South was expected to carry it. Congress was in session in New York. On July 5, Rev. Manasseh Cutler, of Massachusetts, came into New York to lobby on the Northwestern territory. Everything seemed to fall into his hands. Events were ripe. The state of the public credit, the growing of Southern prejudice, the basis of his mission, his personal character, all combined to complete one of those sudden and marvelous revolutions of public sentiment that once in five or ten centuries are seen to sweep over a country like the breath of the Almighty.

Cutler was a graduate of Yale. He had studied and taken degrees in the three learned professions, medicine, law and divinity. He had published a scientific examination of the plants of New England. As a scientist in America his name stood second only to that of Franklin. He was a courtly gentleman

of the old style, a man of commanding presence and of inviting face. The Southern members said they had never seen such a gentleman in the North. He came representing a Massachusetts company that desired to purchase a tract of land, now included in Ohio, for the purpose of planting a colony. It was a speculation. Government money was worth eighteen cents on the dollar. This company had collected enough to purchase 1,500,000 acres of land. Other speculators in New York made Dr. Cutler their agent, which enabled him to represent a demand for 5,500,000 acres. As this would reduce the national debt, and Jefferson's policy was to provide for the public credit, it presented a good opportunity to do something.

Massachusetts then owned the territory of Maine, which she was crowding on the market. She was opposed to opening the Northwestern region. This fired the zeal of Virginia. The South caught the inspiration, and all exalted Dr. Cutler. The entire South rallied around him. Massachusetts could not vote against him, because many of the constituents of her members were interested personally in the Western speculation. Thus Cutler, making friends in the South, and doubtless using all the arts of the lobby, was enabled to command the situation. True to deeper convictions, he dictated one of the most compact and finished documents of wise statesmanship that has ever adorned any human law book. He borrowed from Jefferson the term "Articles of Compact," which, preceding the federal constitution, rose into the most sacred character. He then followed very closely the constitution of Massachusetts, adopted three years before. Its most prominent points were:

1. The exclusion of slavery from the territory forever.
2. Provision for public schools, giving one township for a seminary and every section numbered 16 in each township; that is, one-thirty-sixth of all the land for public schools.
3. A provision prohibiting the adoption of any constitution or the enactment of any law that should nullify pre-existing contracts.

Be it forever remembered that this compact declared that "religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall always be encouraged." Dr. Cutler planted himself on this platform and would not yield. Giving his unqualified declaration that it was that or nothing,—that unless they could make the land desirable they did not want it,—he took his horse and buggy and started for the constitutional con-

vention at Philadelphia. On July 13, 1787, the bill was put upon its passage, and was unanimously adopted. Thus the great States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin, a vast empire, were consecrated to freedom, intelligence and morality. Thus the great heart of the nation was prepared to save the union of States, for it was this act that was the salvation of the republic and the destruction of slavery. Soon the South saw their great blunder and tried to have the compact repealed. In 1803 Congress referred it to a committee, of which John Randolph was chairman. He reported that this ordinance was a compact, and opposed repeal. Thus it stood, a rock in the way of the on-rushing sea of slavery.

The "Northwestern Territory" included of course what is now the State of Indiana; and Oct. 3, 1787, Maj. Gen. Arthur St. Clair was elected by Congress Governor of this territory. Upon commencing the duties of his office he was instructed to ascertain the real temper of the Indians and do all in his power to remove the causes for controversy between them and the United States, and to effect the extinguishment of Indian titles to all the land possible. The Governor took up quarters in the new settlement of Marietta, Ohio, where he immediately began the organization of the government of the territory. The first session of the General Court of the new territory was held at that place in 1788, the Judges being Samuel H. Parsons, James M. Varnum and John C. Symmes, but under the ordinance Gov. St. Clair was President of the Court. After the first session, and after the necessary laws for government were adopted, Gov. St. Clair, accompanied by the Judges, visited Kaskaskia for the purpose of organizing a civil government there. Full instructions had been sent to Maj. Hamtramck, commandant at Vincennes, to ascertain the exact feeling and temper of the Indian tribes of the Wabash. These instructions were accompanied by speeches to each of the tribes. A Frenchman named Antoine Gamelin was dispatched with these messages April 5, 1790, who visited nearly all the tribes on the Wabash, St. Joseph and St. Mary's rivers, but was coldly received; most of the chiefs being dissatisfied with the policy of the Americans toward them, and prejudiced through English misrepresentation. Full accounts of his adventures among the tribes reached Gov. St. Clair at Kaskaskia in June, 1790. Being satisfied that there was no prospect of effecting a general peace with the Indians of Indiana, he resolved to visit Gen. Harmar at his headquarters at Fort Washington and consult with him on the means of carrying an expedition against the hostile Indians; but before leaving

he intrusted Winthrop Sargent, the Secretary of the Territory, with the execution of the resolutions of Congress regarding the lands and settlers on the Wabash. He directed that officer to proceed to Vincennes, lay out a county there, establish the militia and appoint the necessary civil and military officers. Accordingly Mr. Sargent went to Vincennes and organized Camp Knox, appointed the officers, and notified the inhabitants to present their claims to lands. In establishing these claims the settlers found great difficulty, and concerning this matter the Secretary in his report to the President wrote as follows:

"Although the lands and lots which were awarded to the inhabitants appeared from very good oral testimony to belong to those persons to whom they were awarded, either by original grants, purchase or inheritance, yet there was scarcely one case in twenty where the title was complete, owing to the desultory manner in which public business had been transacted and some other unfortunate causes. The original concessions by the French and British commandants were generally made upon a small scrap of paper, which it has been customary to lodge in the notary's office, who has seldom kept any book of record, but committed the most important land concerns to loose sheets, which in process of time have come into possession of persons that have fraudulently destroyed them; or, unacquainted with their consequence, innocently lost or trifled them away. By French usage they are considered family inheritances, and often descend to women and children. In one instance, and during the government of St. Ange here, a royal notary ran off with all the public papers in his possession, as by a certificate produced to me. And I am very sorry further to observe that in the office of Mr. Le Grand, which continued from 1777 to 1787, and where should have been the vouchers for important land transactions, the records have been so falsified, and there is such gross fraud and forgery, as to invalidate all evidence and information which I might have otherwise acquired from his papers."

Mr. Sargent says there were about 150 French families at Vincennes in 1790. The heads of all these families had been at some time vested with certain titles to a portion of the soil; and while the Secretary was busy straightening out these claims, he received a petition signed by 80 Americans, asking for the confirmation of grants of land ceded by the Court organized by Col. John Todd under the authority of Virginia. With reference to this cause, Congress, March 3, 1791, empowered the Territorial Governor, in cases where land had

been actually improved and cultivated under a supposed grant for the same, to confirm to the persons who made such improvements the lands supposed to have been granted, not, however, exceeding the quantity of 400 acres to any one person.

LIQUOR AND GAMING LAWS.

The General Court in the summer of 1790, Acting Governor Sargent presiding, passed the following laws with reference to vending liquors among the Indians and others, and with reference to games of chance:

1. An act to prohibit the giving or selling intoxicating liquors to Indians residing in or coming into the Territory of the United States northwest of the river Ohio, and for preventing foreigners from trading with Indians therein.

2. An act prohibiting the sale of spirituous or other intoxicating liquors to soldiers in the service of the United States, being within ten miles of any military post in the territory; and to prevent the selling or pawning of arms, ammunition, clothing or accoutrements.

3. An act prohibiting every species of gaming for money or property, and for making void contracts and payments made in consequence thereof, and for restraining the disorderly practice of discharging arms at certain hours and places.

Winthrop Sargent's administration was highly eulogized by the citizens at Vincennes, in a testimonial drawn up and signed by a committee of officers. He had conducted the investigation and settlement of land claims to the entire satisfaction of the residents, had upheld the principles of free government in keeping with the animus of the American Revolution, and had established in good order the machinery of a good and wise government. In the same address Major Hamtramck also received a fair share of praise for his judicious management of affairs.

MILITARY HISTORY 1790-1800.

EXPEDITIONS OF HARMAR, SCOTT AND WILKINSON.

Gov. St. Clair, on his arrival at Fort Washington from Kaskaskia, had a long conversation with Gen. Harmar, and concluded to send a powerful force to chastise the savages about the head-waters of the Wabash. He had been empowered by the President to call on Virginia for 1,000 troops and on Pennsylvania for 500, and he immediately availed himself of this resource, ordering 300 of the Virginia militia to muster at Fort Stenben and march with the garrison of that fort to Vincennes, and join Maj. Hamtramck, who had orders to call for aid from the militia of Vincennes, march up the Wabash, and attack any of the Indian villages which he might think he could overcome. The remaining 1,200 of the militia were ordered to rendezvous at Fort Washington, and to join the regular troops at that post under command of Gen. Harmar. At this time the United States troops in the West were estimated by Gen. Harmar at 400 effective men. These, with the militia, gave him a force of 1,450 men. With this army Gen. Harmar marched from Fort Washington, Sept. 30, and arrived at the Maumee Oct. 17. They commenced the work of punishing the Indians, but were not very successful. The savages, it is true, received a severe scourging, but the militia behaved so badly as to be of little or no service. A detachment of 340 militia and 60 regulars, under the command of Col. Hardin, were sorely defeated on the Maumee Oct. 22. The next day the army took up the line of march for Fort Washington, which place they reached Nov. 4, having lost in the expedition 183 killed and 31 wounded; the Indians lost about as many. During the progress of this expedition Maj. Hamtramck marched up the Wabash from Vincennes, as far as the Vermillion river, and destroyed several deserted villages, but without finding an enemy to oppose him.

Although the savages seem to have been severely punished by these expeditions, yet they refused to sue for peace, and continued their hostilities. Thereupon the inhabitants of the frontier settlements of Virginia took alarm, and the delegates of Ohio, Monongahela, Harrison, Randolph, Greenbrier, Ka-

nawha and Montgomery counties sent a joint memorial to the Governor of Virginia, saying that the defenseless condition of the counties, forming a line of nearly 400 miles along the Ohio river, exposed to the hostile invasion of their Indian enemies, destitute of every kind of support, was truly alarming; for, notwithstanding all the regulations of the General Government in that country, they have reason to lament that they have been up to that time ineffectual for their protection; nor indeed could it be otherwise, for the garrisons kept by the Continental troops on the Ohio river, if of any use at all, must protect only the Kentucky settlements, as they immediately covered that country. They further stated in their memorial: "We beg leave to observe that we have reason to fear that the consequences of the defeat of our army by the Indians in the late expedition will be severely felt on our frontiers, as there is no doubt that the Indians will, in their turn, being flushed with victory, invade our settlements and exercise all their horrid murder upon the inhabitants thereof whenever the weather will permit them to travel. Then is it not better to support us where we are, be the expense what it may, than to oblige such a number of your brave citizens, who have so long supported, and still continue to support, a dangerous frontier (although thousands of their relatives in the flesh have in the prosecution thereof fallen a sacrifice to savage inventions) to quit the country, after all they have done and suffered, when you know that a frontier must be supported somewhere?"

This memorial caused the Legislature of Virginia to authorize the Governor of that State to make any defensive operations necessary for the temporary defense of the frontiers, until the general Government could adopt and carry out measures to suppress the hostile Indians. The Governor at once called upon the military commanding officers in the western counties of Virginia to raise by the first of March, 1791, several small companies of rangers for this purpose. At the same time Charles Scott was appointed Brigadier-General of the Kentucky militia, with authority to raise 226 volunteers, to protect the most exposed portions of that district. A full report of the proceedings of the Virginia Legislature being transmitted to Congress, that body constituted a local Board of War for the district of Kentucky, consisting of five men. March 9, 1791, Gen. Henry Knox, Secretary of War, sent a letter of instructions to Gen. Scott, recommending an expedition of mounted men not exceeding 750, against the Wea towns on the Wabash. With this force Gen. Scott accordingly crossed the Ohio, May 23, 1791, and reached the Wabash in about ten

days. Many of the Indians, having discovered his approach, fled, but he succeeded in destroying all the villages around Oniatenon, together with several Kickapoo towns, killing 32 warriors and taking 58 prisoners. He released a few of the most infirm prisoners, giving them a "talk," which they carried to the towns farther up the Wabash, and which the wretched condition of his horses prevented him from reaching.

March 3, 1791, Congress provided for raising and equipping a regiment for the protection of the frontiers, and Gov. St. Clair was invested with the chief command of about 3,000 troops, to be raised and employed against the hostile Indians in the territory over which his jurisdiction extended. He was instructed by the Secretary of War to march to the Miami village and establish a strong and permanent military post there; also such posts elsewhere along the Ohio as would be in communication with Fort Washington. The post at Miami village was intended to keep the savages in that vicinity in check, and was ordered to be strong enough in its garrison to afford a detachment of 500 or 600 men in case of emergency, either to chastise any of the Wabash or other hostile Indians or capture convoys of the enemy's provisions. The Secretary of War also urged Gov. St. Clair to establish that post as the first and most important part of the campaign. In case of a previous treaty the Indians were to be conciliated upon this point if possible; and he presumed good arguments might be offered to induce their acquiescence. Said he: "Having commenced your march upon the main expedition, and the Indians continuing hostile, you will use every possible exertion to make them feel the effects of your superiority; and, after having arrived at the Miami village and put your works in a defensive state, you will seek the enemy with the whole of your remaining force, and endeavor by all possible means to strike them with great severity. * * * * In order to avoid future wars, it might be proper to make the Wabash and thence over to the Maumee, and down the same to its mouth, at Lake Erie, the boundary between the people of the United States and the Indians (excepting so far as the same should relate to the Wyandots and Delawares), on the supposition of their continuing faithful to the treaties; but if they should join in the war against the United States, and your army be victorious, the said tribes ought to be removed without the boundary mentioned."

Previous to marching a strong force to the Miami town, Gov. St. Clair, June 25, 1791, authorized Gen. Wilkinson to conduct a second expedition, not exceeding 500 mounted men, against

the Indian villages on the Wabash. Accordingly Gen. Wilkinson mustered his forces and was ready July 20, to march with 525 mounted volunteers, well armed, and provided with 30 days' provisions, and with this force he reached the Kenapacom-aqua village on the north bank of Eel river about six miles above its mouth, Aug. 7, where he killed six warriors and took 34 prisoners. This town, which was scattered along the river for three miles, was totally destroyed. Wilkinson encamped on the ruins of the town that night, and the next day he commenced his march for the Kickapoo town on the prairie, which he was unable to reach owing to the impassable condition of the route which he adopted and the failing condition of his horses. He reported the estimated results of the expedition as follows: "I have destroyed the chief town of the Ouiatenon nation, and have made prisoners of the sons and sisters of the king. I have burned a respectable Kickapoo village, and cut down at least 400 acres of corn, chiefly in the milk."

EXPEDITIONS OF ST. CLAIR AND WAYNE.

The Indians were greatly damaged by the expeditions of Harmer, Scott and Wilkinson, but were far from being subdued. They regarded the policy of the United States as calculated to exterminate them from the land; and, goaded on by the English of Detroit, enemies of the Americans, they were excited to desperation. At this time the British Government still supported garrisons at Niagara, Detroit and Michilimackinac, although it was declared by the second article of the definitive treaty of peace of 1783, that the king of Great Britain would, "with all convenient speed, and without causing any destruction or carrying away any negroes or property of the American inhabitants, withdraw all his forces, garrisons and fleets from the United States, and from every post, place and harbor within the same." That treaty also provided that the creditors on either side should meet with no lawful impediments to the recovery of the full value, in sterling money, of all *bona fide* debts previously contracted. The British Government claimed that the United States had broken faith in this particular understanding of the treaty, and in consequence refused to withdraw its forces from the territory. The British garrisons in the Lake Region were a source of much annoyance to the Americans, as they afforded succor to hostile Indians, encouraging them to make raids among the Americans. This state of affairs in the Territory Northwest of the Ohio

continued from the commencement of the Revolutionary war to 1796, when under a second treaty all British soldiers were withdrawn from the country.

In September, 1791, St. Clair moved from Fort Washington with about 2,000 men, and November 3, the main army, consisting of about 1,400 effective troops, moved forward to the head-waters of the Wabash, where Fort Recovery was afterward erected, and here the army encamped. About 1,200 Indians were secreted a few miles distant, awaiting a favorable opportunity to begin an attack, which they improved on the morning of Nov. 4, about half an hour before sunrise. The attack was first made upon the militia, which immediately gave way. St. Clair was defeated and he returned to Fort Washington with a broken and dispirited army, having lost 39 officers killed, and 539 men killed and missing; 22 officers and 232 men were wounded. Several pieces of artillery, and all the baggage, ammunition and provisions were left on the field of battle and fell into the hands of the victorious Indians. The stores and other public property lost in the action were valued at \$32,800. There were also 100 or more American women with the army of the whites, very few of whom escaped the cruel carnage of the savage Indians. The latter, characteristic of their brutal nature, proceeded in the flush of victory to perpetrate the most horrible acts of cruelty and brutality upon the bodies of the living and the dead Americans who fell into their hands. Believing that the whites had made war for many years merely to acquire land, the Indians crammed clay and sand into the eyes and down the throats of the dying and the dead!

GEN. WAYNE'S GREAT VICTORY.

Although no particular blame was attached to Gov. St. Clair for the loss in this expedition, yet he resigned the office of Major-General, and was succeeded by Anthony Wayne, a distinguished officer of the Revolutionary war. Early in 1792 provisions were made by the general Government for re-organizing the army, so that it should consist of an efficient degree of strength. Wayne arrived at Pittsburg in June, where the army was to rendezvous. Here he continued actively engaged in organizing and training his forces until October, 1793, when with an army of about 3,600 men he moved westward to Fort Washington.

While Wayne was preparing for an offensive campaign, every possible means was employed to induce the hostile tribes

of the Northwest to enter into a general treaty of peace with the American Government; speeches were sent among them, and agents to make treaties were also sent, but little was accomplished. Major Hamtramck, who still remained at Vincennes, succeeded in concluding a general peace with the Wabash and Illinois Indians; but the tribes more immediately under the influence of the British refused to hear the sentiments of friendship that were sent among them, and tomahawked several of the messengers. Their courage had been aroused by St. Clair's defeat, as well as by the unsuccessful expeditions which had preceded it, and they now felt quite prepared to meet a superior force under Gen. Wayne. The Indians insisted on the Ohio river as the boundary line between their lands and the lands of the United States, and felt certain that they could maintain that boundary.

Maj. Gen. Scott, with about 1,600 mounted volunteers from Kentucky, joined the regular troops under Gen. Wayne July 26, 1794, and on the 28th the united forces began their march for the Indian towns on the Maumee river. Arriving at the mouth of the Auglaize, they erected Fort Defiance, and Aug. 15 the army advanced toward the British fort at the foot of the rapids of the Maumee, where, on the 20th, almost within reach of the British the American army gained a decisive victory over the combined forces of the hostile Indians and a considerable number of the Detroit militia. The number of the enemy was estimated at 2,000, against about 900 American troops actually engaged. This horde of savages, as soon as the action began, abandoned themselves to flight and dispersed with terror and dismay, leaving Wayne's victorious army in full and quiet possession of the field. The Americans lost 33 killed and 100 wounded; loss of the enemy more than double this number.

The army remained three days and nights on the banks of the Maumee, in front of the field of battle, during which time all the houses and cornfields were consumed and destroyed for a considerable distance both above and below Fort Miami, as well as within pistol shot of the British garrison, who were compelled to remain idle spectators to this general devastation and conflagration, among which were the houses, stores and property of Col. McKee, the British Indian agent and "principal stimulator of the war then existing between the United States and savages." On the return march to Fort Defiance the villages and cornfields for about 50 miles on each side of the Maumee were destroyed, as well as those for a considerable distance around that post.

Sept. 14, 1794, the army under Gen. Wayne commenced its march toward the deserted Miami villages at the confluence of St. Joseph's and St. Mary's rivers, arriving Oct. 17, and on the following day the site of Fort Wayne was selected. The fort was completed Nov. 22, and garrisoned by a strong detachment of infantry and artillery, under the command of Col. John F. Hamtramck, who gave to the new fort the name of Fort Wayne. In 1814 a new fort was built on the site of this structure. The Kentucky volunteers returned to Fort Washington and were mustered out of service. Gen. Wayne, with the Federal troops, marched to Greenville and took up his headquarters during the winter. Here, in August, 1795, after several months of active negotiation, this gallant officer succeeded in concluding a general treaty of peace with all the hostile tribes of the Northwestern Territory. This treaty opened the way for the flood of immigration for many years, and ultimately made the States and territories now constituting the mighty Northwest.

Up to the organization of the Indiana Territory there is but little history to record aside from those events connected with military affairs. In July, 1796, as before stated, after a treaty was concluded between the United States and Spain, the British garrisons, with their arms, artillery and stores, were withdrawn from the posts within the boundaries of the United States northwest of the Ohio river, and a detachment of American troops, consisting of 65 men, under the command of Capt. Moses Porter, took possession of the evacuated post of Detroit in the same month.

In the latter part of 1796 Winthrop Sargent went to Detroit and organized the county of Wayne, forming a part of the Indiana Territory until its division in 1805, when the Territory of Michigan was organized.

TERRITORIAL HISTORY.

ORGANIZATION OF INDIANA TERRITORY.

On the final success of American arms and diplomacy in 1796, the principal town within the Territory, now the State, of Indiana was Vincennes, which at this time comprised about 50 houses, all presenting a thrifty and tidy appearance. Each house was surrounded by a garden fenced with poles, and peach and apple-trees grew in most of the enclosures. Garden vegetables of all kinds were cultivated with success, and corn, tobacco, wheat, barley and cotton grew in the fields around the village in abundance. During the last few years of the 18th century the condition of society at Vincennes improved wonderfully.

Besides Vincennes there was a small settlement near where the town of Lawrenceburg now stands, in Dearborn county, and in the course of that year a small settlement was formed at "Armstrong's Station," on the Ohio, within the present limits of Clark county. There were of course several other smaller settlements and trading posts in the present limits of Indiana, and the number of civilized inhabitants comprised within the territory was estimated at 4,875.

The Territory of Indiana was organized by Act of Congress May 7, 1800, the material parts of the ordinance of 1787 remaining in force; and the inhabitants were invested with all the rights, privileges and advantages granted and secured to the people by that ordinance. The seat of government was fixed at Vincennes. May 13, 1800, Wm. Henry Harrison, a native of Virginia, was appointed Governor of this new territory, and on the next day John Gibson, a native of Pennsylvania and a distinguished Western pioneer, (to whom the Indian chief Logan delivered his celebrated speech in 1774), was appointed Secretary of the Territory. Soon afterward Wm. Clark, Henry Vanderburgh and John Griffin were appointed territorial Judges.

Secretary Gibson arrived at Vincennes in July, and commenced, in the absence of Gov. Harrison, the administration of government. Gov. Harrison did not arrive until Jan. 10, 1801, when he immediately called together the Judges of the

Territory, who proceeded to pass such laws as they deemed necessary for the present government of the Territory. This session began March 3, 1801.

From this time to 1810 the principal subjects which attracted the attention of the people of Indiana were land speculations, the adjustment of land titles, the question of negro slavery, the purchase of Indian lands by treaties, the organization of Territorial legislatures, the extension of the right of suffrage, the division of Indiana Territory, the movements of Aaron Burr, and the hostile views and proceedings of the Shawanee chief, Tecumseh, and his brother, the Prophet.

Up to this time the sixth article of the celebrated ordinance of 1787, prohibiting slavery in the Northwestern Territory, had been somewhat neglected in the execution of the law, and many French settlers still held slaves in a manner. In some instances, according to rules prescribed by Territorial legislation, slaves agreed by indentures to remain in servitude under their masters for a certain number of years; but many slaves, with whom no such contracts were made, were removed from the Indiana Territory either to the west of the Mississippi or to some of the slaveholding States. Gov. Harrison convoked a session of delegates of the Territory, elected by a popular vote, who petitioned Congress to declare the sixth article of the ordinance of 1787, prohibiting slavery, suspended; but Congress never consented to grant that petition, and many other petitions of a similar import. Soon afterward some of the citizens began to take colored persons out of the Territory for the purpose of selling them, and Gov. Harrison, by a proclamation April 6, 1804, forbade it, and called upon the authorities of the Territory to assist him in preventing such removal of persons of color.

During the year 1804 all the country west of the Mississippi and north of 33° was attached to Indiana Territory by Congress, but in a few months was again detached and organized into a separate territory.

When it appeared from the result of a popular vote in the Territory that a majority of 138 freeholders were in favor of organizing a General Assembly, Gov. Harrison, Sept. 11, 1804, issued a proclamation declaring that the Territory had passed into the second grade of government, as contemplated by the ordinance of 1787, and fixed Thursday, Jan. 3, 1805, as the time for holding an election in the several counties of the Territory, to choose members of a House of Representatives, who should meet at Vincennes Feb. 1 and adopt measures for the organization of a Territorial Council. These delegates were elected,

and met according to the proclamation, and selected ten men from whom the President of the United States, Mr. Jefferson, should appoint five to be and constitute the Legislative Council of the Territory, but he declining, requested Mr. Harrison to make the selection, which was accordingly done. Before the first session of this Council, however, was held, Michigan Territory was set off, its south line being one drawn from the southern end of Lake Michigan directly east to Lake Erie.

FIRST TERRITORIAL LEGISLATURE.

The first General Assembly, or Legislature, of Indiana Territory met at Vincennes July 29, 1805, in pursuance of a gubernatorial proclamation. The members of the House of Representatives were Jesse B. Thomas, of Dearborn county; Davis Floyd, of Clark county; Benjamin Parke and John Johnson, of Knox county; Shadrach Bond and William Biggs, of St. Clair county, and George Fisher, of Randolph county. July 30 the Governor delivered his first message to "the Legislative Council and House of Representatives of the Indiana Territory." Benjamin Parke was the first delegate elected to Congress. He had emigrated from New Jersey to Indiana in 1801.

THE "WESTERN SUN"

was the first newspaper published in the Indiana Territory, now comprising the four great States of Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin, and the second in all that country once known as the "Northwestern Territory." It was commenced at Vincennes in 1803, by Elihu Stout, of Kentucky, and first called the *Indiana Gazette*, and July 4, 1804, was changed to the *Western Sun*. Mr. Stout continued the paper until 1845, amid many discouragements, when he was appointed postmaster at the place, and he sold out the office.

INDIANA IN 1810.

The events which we have just been describing really constitute the initiatory steps to the great military campaign of Gen. Harrison which ended in the "battle of Tippecanoe;" but before proceeding to an account of that brilliant affair, let us take a glance at the resources and strength of Indiana Territory at this time, 1810:

Total population, 24,520; 33 grist mills; 14 saw mills; 3 horse mills; 18 tanneries; 28 distilleries; 3 powder mills; 1,256

looms; 1,350 spinning wheels; value of manufactures—woolen, cotton, hempen and flaxen cloths, \$159,052; of cotton and wool spun in mills, \$150,000; of nails, 30,000 pounds, \$4,000; of leather tanned, \$9,300; of distillery products, 35,950 gallons, \$16,230; of gunpowder, 3,660 pounds, \$1,800; of wine from grapes, 96 barrels, \$6,000, and 50,000 pounds of maple sugar.

During the year 1810 a Board of Commissioners was established to straighten out the confused condition into which the land-title controversy had been carried by the various and conflicting administrations that had previously exercised jurisdiction in this regard. This work was attended with much labor on the part of the Commissioners and great dissatisfaction on the part of a few designing speculators, who thought no extreme of perjury too hazardous in their mad attempts to obtain lands fraudulently. In closing their report the Commissioners used the following expressive language: "We close this melancholy picture of human depravity by rendering our devout acknowledgment that, in the awful alternative in which we have been placed, of either admitting perjured testimony in support of the claims before us, or having it turned against our characters and lives, it has as yet pleased that divine providence which rules over the affairs of men, to preserve us, both from legal murder and private assassination."

The question of dividing the Territory of Indiana was agitated from 1806 to 1809, when Congress erected the Territory of Illinois, to comprise all that part of Indiana Territory lying west of the Wabash river and a direct line drawn from that river and Post Vincennes due north to the territorial line between the United States and Canada. This occasioned some confusion in the government of Indiana, but in due time the new elections were confirmed, and the new territory started off on a journey of prosperity which this section of the United States has ever since enjoyed.

From the first settlement of Vincennes for nearly half a century there occurred nothing of importance to relate, at least so far as the records inform us. The place was too isolated to grow very fast, and we suppose there was a succession of priests and commandants, who governed the little world around them with almost infinite power and authority, from whose decisions there was no appeal, if indeed any was ever desired. The character of society in such a place would of course grow gradually different from the parent society, assimilating more or less with that of neighboring tribes. The whites lived in peace with the Indians, each understanding the

other's peculiarities, which remained fixed long enough for both parties to study out and understand them. The government was a mixture of the military and the civil. There was little to incite to enterprise. Speculations in money and property, and their counterpart, beggary, were both unknown; the necessities of life were easily procured, and beyond these there were but few wants to be supplied; hospitality was exercised by all, as there were no taverns; there seemed to be no use for law, judges or prisons; each district had its commandant, and the proceedings of a trial were singular. The complaining party obtained a notification from the commandant to his adversary, accompanied by a command to render justice. If this had no effect he was notified to appear before the commandant on a particular day and answer; and if the last notice was neglected, a sergeant and file of men were sent to bring him,—no sheriff and no costs. The convicted party would be fined and kept in prison until he rendered justice according to the decree; when extremely refractory the cat-o'-uine-tails brought him to a sense of justice. In such a state of society there was no demand for learning and science. Few could read, and still fewer write. Their disposition was nearly always to deal honestly, at least simply. Peltries were their standard of value. A brotherly love generally prevailed. But they were devoid of public spirit, enterprise or ingenuity.

GOV. HARRISON AND THE INDIANS.

Immediately after the organization of Indiana Territory Governor Harrison's attention was directed, by necessity as well as by instructions from Congress, to settling affairs with those Indians who still held claims to lands. He entered into several treaties, by which at the close of 1805 the United States Government had obtained about 46,000 square miles of territory, including all the lands lying on the borders of the Ohio river between the mouth of the Wabash river and the State of Ohio.

The levying of a tax, especially a poll tax, by the General Assembly, created considerable dissatisfaction among many of the inhabitants. At a meeting held Sunday, August 16, 1807, a number of Frenchmen resolved to "withdraw their confidence and support forever from those men who advocated or in any manner promoted the second grade of government."

In 1807 the territorial statutes were revised and under the new code, treason, murder, arson and horse-stealing were each punishable by death. The crime of manslaughter was punishable by the common law. Burglary and robbery were punishable by whipping, fine and in some cases by imprisonment not exceeding forty years. Hog stealing was punishable by fine and whipping. Bigamy was punishable by fine, whipping and disfranchisement, etc.

In 1804 Congress established three land offices for the sale of lands in Indiana territory; one was located at Detroit, one at Vincennes and one at Kaskaskia. In 1807 a fourth one was opened at Jeffersonville, Clark county; this town was first laid out in 1802, agreeably to plans suggested by Mr. Jefferson, then President of the United States.

Governor Harrison, according to his message to the Legislature in 1806, seemed to think that the peace then existing between the whites and Indians was permanent; but in the same document he referred to a matter that might be a source of trouble, which indeed it proved to be, namely, the execution of white laws among the Indians—laws to which the latter had not been a party in their enactment. The trouble was aggravated by the partiality with which the laws seem always to have been executed; the Indian was nearly always the suf-

ferer. All along from 1805 to 1810 the Indians complained bitterly against the encroachments of the white people upon the lands that belonged to them. The invasion of their hunting grounds and the unjustifiable killing of many of their people were the sources of their discontent. An old chief, in laying the trouble of his people before Governor Harrison, said: "You call us children; why do you not make us as happy as our fathers, the French, did? They never took from us our lands; indeed, they were common between us. They planted where they pleased, and they cut wood where they pleased; and so did we; but now if a poor Indian attempts to take a little bark from a tree to cover him from the rain, up comes a white man and threatens to shoot him, claiming the tree as his own."

The Indian truly had grounds for his complaint, and the state of feeling existing among the tribes at this time was well calculated to develop a patriotic leader who should carry them all forward to victory at arms if certain concessions were not made to them by the whites. But this golden opportunity was seized by an unworthy warrior. A brother of Tecumseh, a "prophet" named Law-le-was-i-kaw, but who assumed the name of Pemsquat-a-wah (Open Door), was the crafty Shawnee warrior who was enabled to work upon both the superstitious and the rational judgment of his fellow Indians. He was a good orator, somewhat peculiar in his appearance and well calculated to win the attention and respect of the savages. He began by denouncing witchcraft, the use of intoxicating liquors, the custom of Indian women marrying white men, the dress of the whites and the practice of selling Indian lands to the United States. He also told the Indians that the commands of the Great Spirit required them to punish with death those who practiced the arts of witchcraft and magic; that the Great Spirit had given him power to find out and expose such persons; that he had power to cure all diseases, to confound his enemies and to stay the arm of death in sickness and on the battle-field. His harangues aroused among some bands of Indians a high degree of superstitious excitement. An old Delaware chief named Ta-te-bock-o-she, through whose influence a treaty had been made with the Delawares in 1804, was accused of witchcraft, tried, condemned and tomahawked, and his body consumed by fire. The old chief's wife, nephew ("Billy Patterson") and an aged Indian named Joshua were next accused of witchcraft and condemned to death. The two men were burned at the stake, but the wife of Ta-te-bock-o-she was saved from death by her brother, who suddenly approached her, took her by the hand, and, without meeting any opposi-

tion from the Indians present, led her out of the council-house. He then immediately returned and checked the growing influence of the Prophet by exclaiming in a strong, earnest voice, "The Evil Spirit has come among us and we are killing each other."—[*Dillon's History of Indiana*.]

When Gov. Harrison was made acquainted with these events he sent a special messenger to the Indians, strongly entreating them to renounce the Prophet and his works. This really destroyed to some extent the Prophet's influence; but in the spring of 1808, having aroused nearly all the tribes of the Lake Region, the Prophet with a large number of followers settled near the mouth of the Tippecanoe river, at a place which afterward had the name of "Prophet's Town." Taking advantage of his brother's influence, Tecumseh actively engaged himself in forming the various tribes into a confederacy. He announced publicly to all the Indians that the treaties by which the United States had acquired lands northwest of the Ohio were not made in fairness, and should be considered void. He also said that no single tribe was invested with power to sell lands without the consent of all the other tribes, and that he and his brother, the Prophet, would oppose and resist all future attempts which the white people might make to extend their settlements in the lands that belonged to the Indians.

Early in 1808, Gov. Harrison sent a speech to the Shawanees, in which was this sentence: "My children, this business must be stopped; I will no longer suffer it. You have called a number of men from the most distant tribes to listen to a fool, who speaks not the words of the Great Spirit but those of the devil and the British agents. My children, your conduct has much alarmed the white settlers near you. They desire that you will send away those people; and if they wish to have the impostor with them they can carry him along with them. Let him go to the lakes; he can hear the British more distinctly." This message wounded the pride of the Prophet, and he prevailed on the messenger to inform Gov. Harrison that he was not in league with the British, but was speaking truly the words of the Great Spirit.

In the latter part of the summer of 1808, the Prophet spent several weeks at Vincennes, for the purpose of holding interviews with Gov. Harrison. At one time he told the Governor that he was a Christian and endeavored to persuade his people also to become Christians, abandon the use of liquor, be united in brotherly love, etc., making Mr. Harrison believe at least that he was honest; but before long it was demonstrated that

the "Prophet" was designing, cunning and unreliable; that both he and Tecumseh were enemies of the United States, and friends of the English; and that in case of a war between the Americans and English, they would join the latter. The next year the Prophet again visited Vincennes, with assurances that he was not in sympathy with the English, but the Governor was not disposed to believe him; and in a letter to the Secretary of War, in July, 1809, he said that he regarded the bands of Indians at Prophet's Town as a combination which had been produced by British intrigue and influence, in anticipation of a war between them and the United States.

In direct opposition to Tecumseh and the Prophet and in spite of all these difficulties, Gov. Harrison continued the work of extinguishing Indian titles to lands, with very good success. By the close of 1809, the total amount of land ceded to the United States, under treaties which had been effected by Mr. Harrison, exceeded 30,000,000 acres.

From 1805 to 1807, the movements of Aaron Burr in the Ohio valley created considerable excitement in Indiana. It seemed that he intended to collect a force of men, invade Mexico and found a republic there, comprising all the country west of the Alleghany mountains. He gathered, however, but a few men, started south, and was soon arrested by the Federal authorities. But before his arrest he had abandoned his expedition and his followers had dispersed.

HARRISON'S CAMPAIGN.

While the Indians were combining to prevent any further transfer of land to the whites, the British were using the advantage as a groundwork for a successful war upon the Americans. In the spring of 1810 the followers of the Prophet refused to receive their annuity of salt, and the officials who offered it were denounced as "American dogs," and otherwise treated in a disrespectful manner. Gov. Harrison, in July, attempted to gain the friendship of the Prophet by sending him a letter, offering to treat with him personally in the matter of his grievances, or to furnish means to send him, with three of his principal chiefs, to the President at Washington; but the messenger was coldly received, and they returned word that they would visit Vincennes in a few days and interview the Governor. Accordingly, Aug. 12, 1810, the Shawanee chief with 70 of his principal warriors, marched up to the door of the Governor's house, and from that day until the 22d held daily interviews with His Excellency. In all of his speeches

Tecumseh was haughty, and sometimes arrogant. On the 20th he delivered that celebrated speech in which he gave the Governor the alternative of returning their lands or meeting them in battle.

While the Governor was replying to this speech Tecumseh interrupted him with an angry exclamation, declaring that the United States, through Gov. Harrison, had "cheated and imposed on the Indians." When Tecumseh first rose, a number of his party also sprung to their feet, armed with clubs, tomahawks and spears, and made some threatening demonstrations. The Governor's guards, who stood a little way off, were marched up in haste, and the Indians, awed by the presence of this small armed force, abandoned what seemed to be an intention to make an open attack on the Governor and his attendants. As soon as Tecumseh's remarks were interpreted, the Governor reproached him for his conduct, and commanded him to depart instantly to his camp.

On the following day Tecumseh repented of his rash act and requested the Governor to grant him another interview, and protested against any intention of offense. The Governor consented, and the council was re-opened on the 21st, when the Shawanee chief addressed him in a respectful and dignified manner, but remained immovable in his policy. The Governor then requested Tecumseh to state plainly whether or not the surveyors who might be sent to survey the lands purchased at the treaty of Fort Wayne in 1809, would be molested by Indians. Tecumseh replied: "Brother, when you speak of annuities to me, I look at the land and pity the women and children. I am authorized to say that they will not receive them. Brother, we want to save that piece of land. We do not wish you to take it. It is small enough for our purpose. If you do take it, you must blame yourself as the cause of the trouble between us and the tribes who sold it to you. I want the present boundary line to continue. Should you cross it, I assure you it will be productive of bad consequences."

The next day the Governor, attended only by his interpreter, visited the camp of the great Shawanee, and in the course of a long interview told him that the President of the United States would not acknowledge his claims. "Well," replied the brave warrior, "as the great chief is to determine the matter, I hope the Great Spirit will put sense enough into his head to induce him to direct you to give up this land. It is true, he is so far off he will not be injured by the war. He may sit still in his town and drink his wine, while you and I will have to fight it out."

In his message to the new territorial Legislature in 1810 Gov. Harrison called attention to the dangerous views held by Tecumseh and the Prophet, to the pernicious influence of alien enemies among the Indians, to the unsettled condition of the Indian trade and to the policy of extinguishing Indian titles to lands. The eastern settlements were separated from the western by a considerable extent of Indian lands, and the most fertile tracts within the territory were still in the hands of the Indians. Almost entirely divested of the game from which they had drawn their subsistence, it had become of little use to them; and it was the intention of the Government to substitute for the precarious and scanty supplies of the chase the more certain and plentiful support of agriculture and stock-raising. The old habit of the Indians to hunt so long as a deer could be found was so inveterate that they would not break it and resort to intelligent agriculture unless they were compelled to, and to this they would not be compelled unless they were confined to a limited extent of territory. The earnest language of the Governor's appeal was like this: "Are then those extinguishments of native title which are at once so beneficial to the Indian and the territory of the United States, to be suspended on account of the intrigues of a few individuals? Is one of the fairest portions of the globe to remain in a state of nature, the haunt of a few wretched savages, when it seems destined by the Creator to give support to a large population, and to be the seat of civilization, of science and true Religion?"

In the same message the Governor also urged the establishment of a system of popular education.

Among the acts passed by this session of the Legislature, one authorized the President and Directors of the Vincennes Public Library to raise \$1,000 by lottery. Also, a petition was sent to Congress for a permanent seat of government for the Territory, and commissioners were appointed to select the site.

With the beginning of the year 1811 the British agent for Indian affairs adopted measures calculated to secure the support of the savages in the war which at this time seemed almost inevitable. Meanwhile Gov. Harrison did all in his power to destroy the influence of Tecumseh and his brother and break up the Indian confederacy which was being organized in the interests of Great Britain. Pioneer settlers and the Indians naturally grew more and more aggressive and intolerant, committing depredations and murders, until the Governor felt compelled to send the following speech, substantially, to the two leaders of the Indian tribes: "This is the third year that

all the white people in this country have been alarmed at your proceedings; you threaten us with war; you invite all the tribes north and west of you to join against us, while your warriors who have lately been here deny this. The tribes on the Mississippi have sent me word that you intended to murder me and then commence a war upon my people, and your seizing the salt I recently sent up the Wabash is also sufficient evidence of such intentions on your part. My warriors are preparing themselves, not to strike you, but to defend themselves and their women and children. You shall not surprise us, as you expect to do. Your intended act is a rash one; consider well of it. What can induce you to undertake such a thing when there is so little prospect of success? Do you really think that the handful of men you have about you are able to contend with the seventeen 'fires'? or even that the whole of the tribes combined could contend against the Kentucky 'fire' alone? I am myself of the Long 'Knife fire.' As soon as they hear my voice you will see them pouring forth their swarms of hunting-shirt men as numerous as the mosquitoes on the shores of the Wabash. Take care of their stings. It is not our wish to hurt you; if we did, we certainly have power to do it.

"You have also insulted the Government of the United States, by seizing the salt that was intended for other tribes. Satisfaction must be given for that also. You talk of coming to see me, attended by all of your young men; but this must not be. If your intentions are good, you have no need to bring but a few of your young men with you. I must be plain with you. I will not suffer you to come into our settlements with such a force. My advice is that you visit the President of the United States and lay your grievances before him.

"With respect to the lands that were purchased last fall I can enter into no negotiations with you; the affair is with the President. If you wish to go and see him, I will supply you with the means.

"The person who delivers this is one of my war officers, and is a man in whom I have entire confidence; whatever he says to you, although it may not be contained in this paper, you may believe comes from me. My friend Tecumseh, the bearer is a good man and a brave warrior; I hope you will treat him well. You are yourself a warrior, and all such should have esteem for each other."

The bearer of this speech was politely received by Tecumseh, who politely replied to the Governor briefly that he should visit Vincennes in a few days. Accordingly he arrived July

27, 1811, bringing with him a considerable force of Indians, which created much alarm among the inhabitants. In view of an emergency Gov. Harrison reviewed his militia—about 750 armed men—and stationed two companies and a detachment of dragoons on the borders of the town. At this interview Tecumseh held forth that he intended no war against the United States; that he would send messengers among the Indians to prevent murders and depredations on the white settlements; that the Indians, as well as the whites, who had committed murders, ought to be forgiven; that he had set the white people an example of forgiveness which they ought to follow; that it was his wish to establish a union among all the Indian tribes; that the northern tribes were united; that he was going to visit the southern Indians, and then return to the Prophet's town. He said also that he would visit the President the next spring and settle all difficulties with him, and that he hoped no attempts would be made to make settlements on the lands which had been sold to the United States, at the treaty of Fort Wayne, because the Indians wanted to keep those grounds for hunting.

Tecumseh then, with about 20 of his followers, left for the South, to induce the tribes in that direction to join his confederacy.

By the way, a lawsuit was instituted by Gov. Harrison against a certain Wm. McIntosh, for asserting that the plaintiff had cheated the Indians out of their lands and that by so doing he had made them enemies to the United States. The defendant was a wealthy Scotch resident of Vincennes, well educated, and a man of influence among the people opposed to Gov. Harrison's land policy. The jury rendered a verdict in favor of Harrison, assessing the damages at \$4,000. In execution of the decree of Court a large quantity of the defendant's land was sold in the absence of Gov. Harrison; but some time afterward Harrison caused about two-thirds of the land to be restored to Mr. McIntosh, and the remainder was given to some orphan children.

Harrison's first movement was to erect a new fort on the Wabash river and to break up the assemblage of hostile Indians at the Prophet's town. For this purpose he ordered Col. Boyd's regiment of infantry to move from the falls of Ohio to Vincennes. When the military expedition organized by Gov. Harrison was nearly ready to march to the Prophet's town, several Indian chiefs arrived at Vincennes Sept. 25, 1811, and declared that the Indians would comply with the demands of the Governor and disperse; but this did not check the mil-

itary proceedings. The army under command of Harrison moved from Vincennes Sept. 26, and Oct. 3^d encountering no opposition from the enemy encamped at the place where Fort Harrison was afterward built, and near where the city of Terre Haute now stands. On the night of the 11th a few hostile Indians approached the encampment and wounded one of the sentinels, which caused considerable excitement. The army was immediately drawn up in line of battle, and small detachments were sent in all directions; but the enemy could not be found. Then the Governor sent a message to Prophet's Town, requiring the Shawanees, Winnebagoes, Pottawatomies and Kickapoos at that place to return to their respective tribes; he also required the Prophet to restore all the stolen horses in his possession, or to give satisfactory proof that such persons were not there, nor had lately been under his control. To this message the Governor received no answer, unless that answer was delivered in the battle of Tippecanoe.

The new fort on the Wabash was finished Oct. 28, and at the request of all the subordinate officers, it was called "Fort Harrison," near what is now Terre Haute. This fort was garrisoned with a small number of men under Lieutenant-Colonel Miller. On the 29th the remainder of the army, consisting of 910 men, moved toward the Prophet's town; about 270 of the troops were mounted. The regular troops, 250 in number, were under the command of Col. Boyd. With this army the Governor marched to within a half mile of the Prophet's town, when a conference opened with a distinguished chief, in high esteem with the Prophet, and he informed Harrison that the Indians were much surprised at the approach of the army, and had already dispatched a message to him by another route. Harrison replied that he would not attack them until he had satisfied himself that they would not comply with his demands; that he would continue his encampment on the Wabash, and on the following morning would have an interview with the Prophet. Harrison then resumed his march, and, after some difficulty, selected a place to encamp—a spot not very desirable. It was a piece of dry oak land rising about ten feet above the marshy prairie in front toward the Indian town, and nearly twice that height above a similar prairie in the rear, through which and near this bank ran a small stream clothed with willow and brush wood. Toward the left flank this highland widened considerably, but became gradually narrower in the opposite direction, and at the distance of 150 yards terminated in an abrupt point. The two columns of

infantry occupied the front and rear of this ground about 150 yards from each other on the left, and a little more than half that distance on the right, flank. One flank was filled by two companies of mounted riflemen, 120 men, under command of Major-General Wells, of the Kentucky militia, and one by Spencer's company of mounted riflemen, numbering 80 men. The front line was composed of one battalion of United States infantry, under command of Major Floyd, flanked on the right by two companies of militia, and on the left by one company. The rear line was composed of a battalion of United States troops, under command of Capt. Bean, acting as Major, and four companies of militia infantry under Lieutenant-Colonel Decker. The regular troops of this line joined the mounted riflemen under Gen. Wells, on the left flank, and Col. Decker's battalion formed an angle with Spencer's company on the left. Two troops of dragoons, about 60 men in all, were encamped in the rear of the left flank, and Capt. Parke's troop, which was larger than the other two, in rear of the right line. For a night attack the order of encampment was the order of battle, and each man slept opposite his post in the line. In the formation of the troops single file was adopted, in order to get as great an extension of the lines as possible.

BATTLE OF TIPPECANOE.

No attack was made by the enemy until about 4 o'clock on the morning of Nov. 7, just after the Governor had arisen. The attack was made on the left flank. Only a single gun was fired by the sentinels or by the guard in that direction, which made no resistance, abandoning their posts and fleeing into camp; and the first notice which the troops of that line had of the danger was the yell of the savages within a short distance of them. But the men were courageous and preserved good discipline. Such of them as were awake, or easily awakened, seized arms and took their stations; others, who were more tardy, had to contend with the enemy in the doors of their tents. The storm first fell upon Capt. Barton's company of the Fourth United States Regiment, and Capt. Geiger's company of mounted riflemen, which formed the left angle of the rear line. The fire from the Indians was exceedingly severe, and men in these companies suffered considerably before relief could be brought to them. Some few Indians passed into the encampment near the angle, and one or two penetrated to some distance before they were killed. All the companies formed for action before they were fired on. The morning was

dark and cloudy, and the fires of the Americans afforded only a partial light, which gave greater advantage to the enemy than to the troops, and they were therefore extinguished.

As soon as the Governor could mount his horse he rode to the angle which was attacked, where he found that Barton's company had suffered severely, and the left of Geiger's entirely broken. He immediately ordered Cook's and Wentworth's companies to march up to the center of the rear line, where were stationed a small company of U. S. riflemen and the companies of Bean, Snelling and Prescott. As the General rode up he found Maj. Daviess forming the Dragoons in the rear of these companies, and having ascertained that the heaviest fire proceeded from some trees 15 or 20 paces in front of these companies, he directed the Major to dislodge them with a part of the dragoons; but unfortunately the Major's gallantry caused him to undertake the execution of the order with a smaller force than was required, which enabled the enemy to avoid him in front and attack his flanks. He was mortally wounded and his men driven back. Capt. Snelling, however, with his company immediately dislodged those Indians. Capt. Spencer and his 1st and 2nd Lieutenants were killed, and Capt. Warwick mortally wounded. The soldiery remained brave. Spencer had too much ground originally, and Harrison re-enforced him with a company of riflemen which had been driven from their position on the left flank.

Gen. Harrison's aim was to keep the lines entire, to prevent the enemy from breaking into the camp until daylight, which would enable him to make a general and effectual charge. With this view he had re-enforced every part of the line that had suffered much, and with the approach of morning he withdrew several companies from the front and rear lines and re-enforced the right and left flanks, foreseeing that at these points the enemy would make their last effort. Maj. Wells, who had commanded the left flank, charged upon the enemy and drove them at the point of the bayonet into the marsh, where they could not be followed. Meanwhile Capt. Cook and Lieut. Larrabee marched their companies to the right flank and formed under fire of the enemy, and being there joined by the riflemen of that flank, charged upon the enemy, killing a number and putting the rest to a precipitate flight.

Thus ended the famous battle of Tippecanoe, victoriously to the whites and honorably to Gen. Harrison.

In this battle Mr. Harrison had about 700 efficient men, while the Indians had probably more than that. The loss of the Americans was 37 killed and 25 mortally wounded, and

126 wounded; the Indians lost 38 killed on the field of battle, and the number of the wounded was never known. Among the whites killed were Daviess, Spencer, Owen, Warwick, Randolph, Bean and White. Standing on an eminence near by, the Prophet encouraged his warriors to battle by singing a favorite war-song. He told them that they would gain an easy victory, and that the bullets of their enemies would be made harmless by the Great Spirit. Being informed during the engagement that some of the Indians were killed, he said that his warriors must fight on and they would soon be victorious. Immediately after their defeat the surviving Indians lost faith in their great (?) Prophet, returned to their respective tribes, and thus the confederacy was destroyed. The Prophet, with a very few followers, then took up his residence among a small band of Wyandots encamped on Wild-Cat creek. His famous town, with all its possessions, was destroyed the next day, Nov. 8.

On the 18th the American army returned to Vincennes, where most of the troops were discharged. The Territorial Legislature, being in session, adopted resolutions complimentary to Gov. Harrison and the officers and men under him, and made preparations for a reception and celebration.

Capt. Logan, the eloquent Shawanee chief who assisted our forces so materially, died in the latter part of November, 1812, from the effects of a wound received in a skirmish with a reconnoitering party of hostile Indians accompanied by a white man in the British service, Nov. 22. In that skirmish the white man was killed, and Winamac, a Pottawatomic chief of some distinction, fell by the rifle of Logan. The latter was mortally wounded, when he retreated with two warriors of his tribe, Capt. Johnny and Bright-Horn, to the camp of Gen. Winchester, where he soon afterward died. He was buried with the honors of war.

WAR OF 1812 WITH GREAT BRITAIN.

The victory recently gained by the Americans at the battle of Tippecanoe insured perfect peace for a time, but only a short time as the more extensive schemes of the British had so far ripened as to compel the United States again to declare war against them. Tecumseh had fled to Malden, Canada, where, counseled by the English, he continued to excite the tribes against the Americans. As soon as this war with Great Britain was declared (June 18, 1812), the Indians, as was expected, commenced again to commit depredations. During the summer of 1812 several points along the Lake Region succumbed to the British, as Detroit, under Gen. Hull, Fort Dearborn (now Chicago), commanded by Capt. Heald under Gen. Hull, the post at Mackinac, etc.

In the early part of September, 1812, parties of hostile Indians began to assemble in considerable numbers in the vicinity of Forts Wayne and Harrison, with a view to reducing them. Capt. Rhea, at this time, had command of Fort Wayne, but his drinking propensities rather disqualified him for emergencies. For two weeks the fort was in great jeopardy. An express had been sent to Gen. Harrison for re-enforcements, but many days passed without any tidings of expected assistance. At length, one day, Maj. Wm. Oliver and four friendly Indians arrived at the fort on horseback. One of the Indians was the celebrated Logan. They had come in defiance of "500 Indians," had "broken their ranks" and reached the fort in safety. Oliver reported that Harrison was aware of the situation and was raising men for a re-enforcement. Ohio was also raising volunteers; 800 were then assembled at St. Mary's, Ohio, 60 miles south of Fort Wayne, and would march to the relief of the fort in three or four days, or as soon as they were joined by re-enforcements from Kentucky.

Oliver prepared a letter announcing to Gen. Harrison his safe arrival at the besieged fort, and giving an account of its beleaguered situation, which he dispatched by his friendly Shawanees, while he concluded to take his chances at the fort. Brave Logan and his companions started with the message, but had scarcely left the fort when they were discovered and pursued by the hostile Indians, yet passing the In-

dian lines in safety, they were soon out of reach. The Indians now began a furious attack upon the fort; but the little garrison, with Oliver to cheer them on, bravely met the assault repelling the attack day after day, until the army approached to their relief. During this siege the commanding officer, whose habits of intemperance rendered him unfit for the command, was confined in the "black hole," while the junior officer assumed charge. This course was approved by the General, on his arrival, but Capt. Rhea received very little censure, probably on account of his valuable services in the Revolutionary war.

Sept. 6, 1812, Harrison moved forward with his army to the relief of Fort Wayne; the next day he reached a point within three miles of St. Mary's river; the next day he reached the river and was joined at evening by 200 mounted volunteers, under Col. Richard M. Johnson; the next day at "Shane's Crossing," on the St. Mary's, they were joined by 800 men from Ohio, under Cols. Adams and Hawkins. At this place Chief Logan and four other Indians offered their services as spies to Gen. Harrison, and were accepted. Logan was immediately disguised and sent forward. Passing through the lines of the hostile Indians, he ascertained their number to be about 1,500, and entering the fort, he encouraged the soldiers to hold out, as relief was at hand. Gen. Harrison's force at this time was about 3,500.

After an early breakfast Friday morning they were under marching orders; it had rained and the guns were damp; they were discharged and reloaded; but that day only one Indian was encountered; preparations were made at night for an expected attack by the Indians, but no attack came; the next day, Sept. 10, they expected to fight their way to Fort Wayne, but in that they were happily disappointed; and "At the first grey of the morning," as Bryce eloquently observes, "the distant halloos of the disappointed savages revealed to the anxious inmates of the fort the glorious news of the approach of the army. Great clouds of dust could be seen from the fort rolling up in the distance, as the valiant soldiery under Gen. Harrison moved forward to the rescue of the garrison and the brave boys of Kentucky and Ohio."

This siege of Fort Wayne of course occasioned great loss to the few settlers who had gathered around the fort. At the time of its commencement quite a little village had clustered around the military works, but during the siege most of their improvements and crops were destroyed by the savages. Every building out of the reach of the guns of the fort was lev-

eled to the ground, and thus the infant settlement was destroyed.

During this siege the garrison lost but three men, while the Indians lost 25. Gen. Harrison had all the Indian villages for 25 miles around destroyed. Fort Wayne was nothing but a military post until about 1819.

Simultaneously with the attack on Fort Wayne the Indians also besieged Fort Harrison, which was commanded by Zachary Taylor. The Indians commenced firing upon the fort about 11 o'clock one night, when the garrison was in a rather poor plight for receiving them. The enemy succeeded in firing one of the block-houses, which contained whisky, and the whites had great difficulty in preventing the burning of all the barracks. The word "fire" seemed to have thrown all the men into confusion; soldiers' and citizens' wives, who had taken shelter within the fort, were crying; Indians were yelling; many of the garrison were sick and unable to be on duty; the men despaired and gave themselves up as lost; two of the strongest and apparently most reliable men jumped the pickets in the very midst of the emergency, etc., so that Capt. Taylor was at his wit's end to know what to do; but he gave directions as to the many details, rallied the men by a new scheme, and after about seven hours succeeded in saving themselves. The Indians drove up the horses belonging to the citizens, and as they could not catch them very readily, shot the whole of them in the sight of their owners, and also killed a number of the hogs belonging to the whites. They drove off all the cattle, 65 in number, as well as the public oxen.

Among many other depredations committed by the savages during this period was the massacre of the Pigeon Roost settlement, consisting of one man, five women and 16 children; a few escaped. An unsuccessful effort was made to capture these Indians, but when the news of this massacre and the attack on Fort Harrison reached Vincennes, about 1,200 men, under the command of Col. Wm. Russell, of the 7th U. S. Infantry, marched forth for the relief of the fort and to punish the Indians. On reaching the fort the Indians had retired from the vicinity, but on the 15th of September a small detachment composed of 11 men, under Lieut. Richardson, and acting as escort of provisions sent from Vincennes to Fort Harrison, was attacked by a party of Indians within the present limits of Sullivan county. It was reported that seven of these men were killed and one wounded. The provisions of course fell into the hands of the Indians.

EXPEDITIONS AGAINST THE INDIANS.

By the middle of August, through the disgraceful surrender of Gen. Hull, at Detroit, and the evacuation of Fort Dearborn and massacre of its garrison, the British and Indians were in possession of the whole Northwest. The savages, emboldened by their successes, penetrated deeper into the settlements, committing great depredations. The activity and success of the enemy aroused the people to a realization of the great danger their homes and families were in. Gov. Edwards collected a force of 350 men at Camp Russell, and Capt. Russell came from Vincennes with about 50 more. Being officered and equipped, they proceeded about the middle of October on horseback, carrying with them 20 days' rations, to Peoria. Capt. Craig was sent with two boats up the Illinois, with provisions and tools to build a fort. The little army proceeded to Peoria Lake, where was located a Pottawatomie village. They arrived late at night, within a few miles of the village, without their presence being known to the Indians. Four men were sent out that night to reconnoiter the position of the village. The four brave men who volunteered for this perilous service were Thomas Carlin (afterward Governor), and Robert, Stephen and Davis Whiteside. They proceeded to the village and explored it and the approaches to it thoroughly, without starting an Indian or provoking the bark of a dog. The low lands between the Indian village and the troops was covered with a rank growth of tall grass, so high and dense as to readily conceal an Indian on horseback, until within a few feet of him. The ground had become still more yielding by recent rains, rendering it almost impassable by mounted men. To prevent detection the soldiers had camped without lighting the usual camp-fires. The men lay down in their cold and cheerless camp, with many misgivings. They well remembered how the skulking savages fell upon Harrison's men at Tippecanoe during the night. To add to their fears, a gun in the hands of a soldier was carelessly discharged, raising great consternation in the camp.

Through a dense fog which prevailed the following morning, the army took up its line of march for the Indian town, Capt. Judy with his corps of spies in advance. In the tall grass they came up with an Indian and his squaw, both mounted. The Indian wanted to surrender, but Judy observed that he "did not leave home to take prisoners," and instantly shot one of them. With the blood streaming from his mouth and nose, and in his agony "singing the death song," the dying Indian

raised his gun, shot and mortally wounded a Mr. Wright, and in a few minutes expired! Many guns were immediately discharged at the other Indian, not then known to be a squaw, all of which missed her. Badly scared, and her husband killed by her side, the agonizing wails of the squaw were heart-rending. She was taken prisoner, and afterward restored to her nation.

On nearing the town a general charge was made, the Indians fleeing to the interior wilderness. Some of their warriors made a stand, when a sharp engagement occurred, but the Indians were routed. In their flight they left behind all their winter's store of provisions, which was taken, and their town burned. Some Indian children were found who had been left in the hurried flight, also some disabled adults, one of whom was in a starving condition, and with a voracious appetite partook of the bread given him. He is said to have been killed by a cowardly trooper straggling behind, after the main army had resumed its retrograde march, who wanted to be able to boast that he had killed an Indian.

September 19, 1812, Gen. Harrison was put in command of the Northwestern army, then estimated at 10,000 men, with these orders: "Having provided for the protection of the western frontier, you will retake Detroit; and with a view to the conquest of upper Canada, you will penetrate that country as far as the force under your command will in your judgment justify."

Although surrounded by many difficulties, the General began immediately to execute these instructions. In calling for volunteers from Kentucky, however, more men offered than could be received. At this time there were about 2,000 mounted volunteers at Vincennes, under the command of Gen. Samuel Hopkins, of the Revolutionary war, who was under instruction to operate against the enemy along the Wabash and Illinois rivers. Accordingly, early in October, Gen. Hopkins moved from Vincennes towards the Kickapoo villages in the Illinois territory, with about 2,000 troops; but after four or five days' march the men and officers raised a mutiny which gradually succeeded in carrying all back to Vincennes. The cause of their discontent is not apparent.

About the same time Col. Russell, with two small companies of U. S. Rangers, commanded by Capts. Perry and Modrell, marched from the neighborhood of Vincennes to unite with a small force of mounted militia under the command of Gov. Edwards, of Illinois, and afterward to march with the united troops from Cahokia toward Lake Peoria, for the purpose of

coöperating with Gen. Hopkins against the Indian towns in that vicinity; but not finding the latter on the ground, was compelled to retire.

Immediately after the discharge of the mutinous volunteers, Gen. Hopkins began to organize another force, mainly of infantry, to reduce the Indians up the Wabash as far as the Prophet's town. These troops consisted of three regiments of Kentucky militia commanded by Cols. Barbour, Miller and Wilcox; a small company of regulars commanded by Capt. Zachary Taylor; a company of rangers commanded by Capt. Beckes, and a company of scouts or spies under the command of Capt. Washburn. The main body of this army arrived at Fort Harrison Nov. 5; on the 11th it proceeded up the east side of the Wabash into the heart of the Indian country, but found the villages generally deserted. Winter setting in severely, and the troops poorly clad, they had to return to Vincennes as rapidly as possible. With one exception the men behaved nobly, and did much damage to the enemy. That exception was the precipitate chase after an Indian by a detachment of men somewhat in liquor, until they found themselves surrounded by an overwhelming force of the enemy, and they had to retreat in disorder.

At the close of this campaign Gen. Hopkins resigned his command.

In the fall of 1812 Gen. Harrison assigned to Lieut. Col. John B. Campbell, of the 19th U. S. Inf., the duty of destroying the Miami villages on the Mississinewa river, with a detachment of about 600 men. Nov. 25, Lieut. Col. Campbell marched from Franklinton, according to orders, toward the scene of action, cautiously avoiding falling in with the Delawares, who had been ordered by Gen. Harrison to retire to the Shawanee establishment on the Auglaize river, and arriving on the Mississinewa Dec. 17, when they discovered an Indian town inhabited by Delawares and Miamis. This and three other villages were destroyed. Soon after this, the supplies growing short and the troops in a suffering condition, Campbell began to consider the propriety of returning to Ohio; but just as he was calling together his officers early one morning to deliberate on the proposition, an army of Indians rushed upon them with fury. The engagement lasted an hour, with a loss of eight killed and 42 wounded, besides about 150 horses killed. The whites, however, succeeded in defending themselves and taking a number of Indians prisoners, who proved to be Mummies, of Silver Heel's band. Campbell, hearing that a large force of Indians were assembled at Mississinewa village, un-

der Tecumseh, determined to return to Greenville. The privations of his troops and the severity of the cold compelled him to send to that place for re-enforcements and supplies. Seventeen of the men had to be carried on litters. They were met by the re-enforcement about 40 miles from Greenville.

Lieut. Col. Campbell sent two messages to the Delawares, who lived on White river and who had been previously directed and requested to abandon their towns on that river and remove into Ohio. In these messages he expressed his regret at unfortunately killing some of their men, and urged them to move to the Shawanee settlement on the Anglaize river. He assured them that their people, in his power, would be compensated by the Government for their losses, if not found to be hostile; and the friends of those killed satisfied by presents, if such satisfaction would be received. This advice was needed by the main body of the Delawares and a few Miamis. The Shawanee Prophet, and some of the principal chiefs of the Miamis, retired from the country of the Wabash, and, with their destitute and suffering bands, moved to Detroit, where they were received as the friends and allies of Great Britain.

On the approach of Gen. Harrison with his army in September, 1813, the British evacuated Detroit, and the Ottawas, Chippewas, Pottawatomes, Miamis and Kickapoos sued for peace with the United States, which was granted temporarily by Brig. Gen. McArthur, on condition of their becoming allies of the United States in case of war.

In June, 1813, an expedition composed of 137 men, under command of Col. Joseph Bartholomew, moved from Valonia toward the Delaware towns on the west fork of White river, to surprise and punish some hostile Indians who were supposed to be lurking about those villages. Most of these places they found deserted; some of them burnt. They had been but temporarily occupied for the purpose of collecting and carrying away corn. Col. Bartholomew's forces succeeded in killing one or two Indians and destroying considerable corn, and they returned to Valonia on the 21st of this month.

July 1, 1813, Col. William Russell, of the 7th U. S., organized a force of 573 effective men at Valonia and marched to the Indian villages about the mouth of the Mississinewa. His experience was much like that of Col. Bartholomew, who had just preceded him. He had rainy weather, suffered many losses, found the villages deserted, destroyed stores of corn, &c. The Colonel reported that he went to every place where he expected to find the enemy, but they nearly always

seemed to have fled the country. The march from Valonia to the mouth of the Mississinewa and return was about 250 miles.

Several smaller expeditions helped to "checker" the surrounding country, and find that the Indians were very careful to keep themselves out of sight, and thus closed this series of campaigns.

CLOSE OF THE WAR.

The war with England closed on the 24th of December, 1814, when a treaty of peace was signed at Ghent. The 9th article of the treaty required the United States to put an end to hostilities with all tribes or nations of Indians with whom they had been at war; to restore to such tribes or nations respectively all the rights and possessions to which they were entitled in 1811, before the war, on condition that such Indians should agree to desist from all hostilities against the United States. But in February, just before the treaty was sanctioned by our Government, there were signs of Indians accumulating arms and ammunition, and a cautionary order was therefore issued to have all the white forces in readiness for an attack by the Indians; but the attack was not made. During the ensuing summer and fall the United States Government acquainted the Indians with the provisions of the treaty, and entered into subordinate treaties of peace with the principal tribes.

Just before the treaty of Spring Wells (near Detroit) was signed, the Shawanee Prophet retired to Canada, but declaring his resolution to abide by any treaty which the chiefs might sign. Some time afterward he returned to the Shawanee settlement in Ohio, and lastly to the west of the Mississippi where he died in 1834. The British Government allowed him a pension from 1813 until his death. His brother Tecumseh was killed at the battle of the Thames, Oct. 5, 1813, by a Mr. Wheatty, as we are positively informed by Mr. A. J. James, now a resident of LaHarpe township Hancock county, Ill., whose father-in-law, John Pigman, of Coshocton county, Ohio, was an eye-witness. Gen. Johnson has generally had the credit of killing Tecumseh.

TECUMSEH.

If one should inquire who has been the greatest Indian, the most noted, the "principal Indian" in North America since its discovery by Columbus, we would be obliged to answer Tecumseh. For all those qualities which elevate a man far above his race; for talent, tact, skill and bravery as a warrior; for high-minded, honorable and chivalrous bearing as a man; in a word, for all those elements of greatness which place him a long way above his fellows in savage life, the name and fame of Tecumseh will go down to posterity in the West as one of the most celebrated of the aborigines of this continent,—as one who had no equal among the tribes that dwelt in the country drained by the Mississippi. Born to command himself, he used all the appliances that would stimulate the courage and nerve the valor of his followers. Always in the front rank of battle, his followers blindly followed his lead, and as his war-cry rang clear above the din and noise of the battle-field, the Shawnee warriors, as they rushed on to victory or the grave, rallied around him, foemen worthy of the steel of the most gallant commander that ever entered the lists in defense of his altar or his home.

The tribe to which Tecumseh, or Tecumtha, as some write it, belonged, was the Shawnee, or Shawanee. The tradition of the nation held that they originally came from the Gulf of Mexico; that they wended their way up the Mississippi and the Ohio, and settled at or near the present site of Shawneetown, Ill., whence they removed to the upper Wabash. In the latter place, at any rate, they were found early in the 18th century, and were known as the "bravest of the brave." This tribe has uniformly been the bitter enemy of the white man, and in every contest with our people has exhibited a degree of skill and strategy that should characterize the most dangerous foe.

Tecumseh's notoriety and that of his brother, the Prophet, mutually served to establish and strengthen each other. While the Prophet had unlimited power, spiritual and temporal, he distributed his greatness in all the departments of Indian life with a kind of fanaticism that magnetically aroused the religious and superstitious passions, not only of his own followers, but also of all the tribes in this part of the country; but

Tecumseh concentrated his greatness upon the more practical and business affairs of military conquest. It is doubted whether he was really a sincere believer in the pretensions of his fanatic brother; if he did not believe in the pretentious feature of them he had the shrewdness to keep his unbelief to himself, knowing that religious fanaticism was one of the strongest impulses to reckless bravery.

During his sojourn in the Northwestern Territory, it was Tecumseh's uppermost desire of life to confederate all the Indian tribes of the country together against the whites, to maintain their choice hunting-grounds. All his public policy converged toward this single end. In his vast scheme he comprised even all the Indians in the Gulf country,—all in America west of the Alleghany mountains. He held, as a subordinate principle, that the Great Spirit had given the Indian race all these hunting-grounds to keep in common, and that no Indian or tribe could cede any portion of the land to the whites without the consent of all the tribes. Hence, in all his councils with the whites he ever maintained that the treaties were null and void.

When he met Harrison at Vincennes in council the last time, and, as he was invited by that General to take a seat with him on the platform, he hesitated; Harrison insisted, saying that it was the wish of their Great Father, the President of the United States, that he should do so." The chief paused a moment, raised his tall and commanding form to its greatest height, surveyed the troops and crowd around him, fixed his keen eyes upon Gov. Harrison, and then turning them to the sky above, and pointing toward heaven with his sinewy arm in a manner indicative of supreme contempt for the paternity assigned him, said in clarion tones: "My father? The sun is my father, the earth is my mother, and on her bosom I will recline." He then stretched himself, with his warriors, on the green sward. The effect was electrical, and for some moments there was perfect silence.

The Governor, then, through an interpreter, told him that he understood he had some complaints to make and redress to ask, etc., and that he wished to investigate the matter and make restitution wherever it might be decided it should be done. As soon as the Governor was through with this introductory speech, the stately warrior arose, tall, athletic, manly, dignified and graceful, and with a voice at first low, but distinct and musical, commenced a reply. As he warmed up with his subject his clear tones might be heard, as if "trumpet-tongued," to the utmost limits of the assembly. The most per-

fect silence prevailed, except when his warriors gave their guttural assent to some eloquent recital of the red man's wrong and the white man's injustice. Tecumseh recited the wrongs which his race had suffered from the time of the massacre of the Moravian Indians to the present; said he did not know how he could ever again be the friend of the white man; that the Great Spirit had given to the Indian all the land from the Miami to the Mississippi, and from the lakes to the Ohio, as a common property to all the tribes in these borders, and that the land could not and should not be sold without the consent of all; that all the tribes on the continent formed but one nation; that if the United States would not give up the lands they had bought of the Miamis and the other tribes, those united with him were determined to annihilate those tribes; that they were determined to have no more chiefs, but in future to be governed by their warriors; that unless the whites ceased their encroachments upon Indian lands, the fate of the Indians was sealed; they had been driven from the banks of the Delaware across the Alleghanies, and their possessions on the Wabash and the Illinois were now to be taken from them; that in a few years they would not have ground enough to bury their warriors on this side of the "Father of Waters;" that all would perish, all their possessions taken from them by fraud or force, unless they stopped the progress of the white man westward; that it must be a war of races in which one or the other must perish; that their tribes had been driven toward the setting sun like a galloping horse (ne-kat a-kush-e ka-top-o-lin-to).

The Shawanee language, in which this most eminent Indian statesman spoke, excelled all other aboriginal tongues in its musical articulation; and the effect of Tecumseh's oratory on this occasion can be more easily imagined than described. Gov. Harrison, although as brave a soldier and General as any American, was overcome by this speech. He well knew Tecumseh's power and influence among all the tribes, knew his bravery, courage and determination, and knew that he meant what he said. When Tecumseh was done speaking there was a stillness throughout the assembly which was really painful; not a whisper was heard, and all eyes were turned from the speaker toward Gov. Harrison, who after a few moments came to himself, and recollecting many of the absurd statements of the great Indian orator, began a reply which was more logical, if not so eloquent. The Shawanees were attentive until Harrison's interpreter began to translate his speech to the Miamis and Pottawatomies, when Tecumseh and his war-

riors sprang to their feet, brandishing their war-clubs and tomahawks. "Tell him," said Tecumseh, addressing the interpreter in Shawanee, "he lies." The interpreter undertook to convey this message to the Governor in smoother language, but Tecumseh noticed the effort and remonstrated, "No, no; tell him he lies." The warriors began to grow more excited, when Secretary Gibson ordered the American troops in arms to advance. This allayed the rising storm, and as soon as Tecumseh's "He lies" was literally interpreted to the Governor, the latter told Tecumseh through the interpreter to tell Tecumseh he would hold no further council with him.

Thus the assembly was broken up, and one can hardly imagine a more exciting scene. It would constitute the finest subject for a historical painting to adorn the rotunda of the capitol. The next day Tecumseh requested another interview with the Governor, which was granted on condition that he should make an apology to the Governor for his language the day before. This he made through the interpreter. Measures for defense and protection were taken, however, lest there should be another outbreak. Two companies of militia were ordered from the country, and the one in town added to them, while the Governor and his friends went into council fully armed and prepared for any contingency. On this occasion the conduct of Tecumseh was entirely different from that of the day before. Firm and intrepid, showing not the slightest fear or alarm, surrounded with a military force four times his own, he preserved the utmost composure and equanimity. No one would have supposed that he could have been the principal actor in the thrilling scene of the previous day. He claimed that half the Americans were in sympathy with him. He also said that whites had informed him that Gov. Harrison had purchased land from the Indians without any authority from the Government; that he, Harrison, had but two years more to remain in office, and that if he, Tecumseh, could prevail upon the Indians who sold the lands not to receive their annuities for that time, and the present Governor displaced by a good man as his successor, the latter would restore to the Indians all the lands purchased from them.

The Wyandots, Kickapoos, Pottawatomies, Ottawas and the Winnebagos, through their respective spokesmen, declared their adherence to the great Shawanee warrior and statesman. Gov. Harrison then told them that he would send Tecumseh's speech to the President of the United States and return the answer to the Indians as soon as it was received. Tecumseh then declared that he and his allies were determined that the old

boundary line should continue; and that if the whites crossed it, it would be at their peril. Gov. Harrison replied that he would be equally plain with him and state that the President would never allow that the lands on the Wabash were the property of any other tribes than those who had occupied them since the white people first came to America; and as the title to the lands lately purchased was derived from those tribes by a fair purchase, he might rest assured that the right of the United States would be supported by the sword. "So be it," was the stern and haughty reply of the Shawnee chieftain, as he and his braves took leave of the Governor and wended their way in Indian file to their camping ground.

Thus ended the last conference on earth between the chivalrous Tecumseh and the hero of the battle of Tippecanoe. The bones of the first lie bleaching on the battle-field of the Thames, and those of the last in a mausoleum on the banks of the Ohio; each struggled for the mastery of his race, and each no doubt was equally honest and patriotic in his purposes. The weak yielded to the strong, the defenseless to the powerful, and the hunting-ground of the Shawnee is all occupied by his enemy.

Tecumseh, with four of his braves, immediately embarked in a birch canoe, descended the Wabash, and went on to the South to unite the tribes of that country in a general system of self-defense against the encroachment of the whites. His emblem was a disjointed snake, with the motto, "Join or die!" In union alone was strength.

Before Tecumseh left the Prophet's town at the mouth of the Tippecanoe river, on his excursion to the South, he had a definite understanding with his brother and the chieftains of the other tribes in the Wabash country, that they should preserve perfect peace with the whites until his arrangements were completed for a confederacy of the tribes on both sides of the Ohio and on the Mississippi river; but it seems that while he was in the South engaged in his work of uniting the tribes of that country some of the Northern tribes showed signs of fight and precipitated Harrison into that campaign which ended in the battle of Tippecanoe and the total rout of the Indians. Tecumseh, on his return from the South, learning what had happened, was overcome with chagrin, disappointment and anger, and accused his brother of duplicity and cowardice; indeed, it is said that he never forgave him to the day of his death. A short time afterward, on the breaking out of the war of Great Britain, he joined Proctor, at Malden, with a party of his warriors, and finally suffered the fate previously mentioned.

CIVIL MATTERS, 1812-15.

Owing to the absence of Gov. Harrison on military duty, John Gibson, the Secretary of the Territory, acted in the administration of civil affairs. In his message to the Legislature convening on the 1st of February, 1813, he said, substantially:

"Did I possess the abilities of Cicero or Demosthenes, I could not portray in more glowing colors our foreign and domestic political situation than it is already experienced within our own breasts. The United States have been compelled, by frequent acts of injustice, to declare war against England. For a detail of the causes of this war I would refer to the message of President Madison; it does honor to his head and heart. Although not an admirer of war, I am glad to see our little but inimitable navy riding triumphant on the seas, but chagrined to find that our armies by land are so little successful. The spirit of '76 appears to have fled from our continent, or, if not fled, is at least asleep, for it appears not to pervade our armies generally. At your last assemblage our political horizon seemed clear, and our infant Territory bid fair for rapid and rising grandeur; but, alas, the scene has changed; and whether this change, as respects our Territory, has been owing to an over anxiety in us to extend our dominions, or to a wish for retaliation by our foes, or to a foreign influence, I shall not say. The Indians, our former neighbors and friends, have become our most inveterate foes. Our former frontiers are now our wilds, and our inner settlements have become frontiers. Some of our best citizens, and old men worn down with age, and helpless women and innocent babes, have fallen victims to savage cruelty. I have done my duty as well as I can, and hope that the interposition of Providence will protect us."

The many complaints made about the Territorial Government Mr. Gibson said, were caused more by default of officers than of the law. Said he: "It is an old and, I believe, correct adage, that 'good officers make good soldiers.' This evil having taken root, I do not know how it can be eradicated; but it may be remedied. In place of men searching after and accepting commissions before they are even tolerably qualified,

thereby subjecting themselves to ridicule and their country to ruin, barely for the name of the thing, I think may be remedied by a previous examination."

During this session of the Legislature the seat of the Territorial Government was declared to be at Corydon, and immediately acting Governor Gibson prorogued the Legislature to meet at that place, the first Monday of December, 1813. During this year the Territory was almost defenseless; Indian outrages were of common occurrence, but no general outbreak was made. The militia-men were armed with rifles and long knives, and many of the rangers carried tomahawks.

In 1813 Thomas Posey, who was at that time a Senator in Congress from Tennessee, and who had been officer of the army of the Revolution, was appointed Governor of Indiana Territory, to succeed Gen. Harrison. He arrived in Vincennes and entered upon the discharge of his duties May 25, 1813. During this year several expeditions against the Indian settlements were set on foot.

In his first message to the Legislature the following December, at Corydon, Gov. Posey said; "The present crisis is awful, and big with great events. Our land and nation is involved in the common calamity of war; but we are under the protecting care of the beneficent Being, who has on a former occasion brought us safely through an arduous struggle and placed us on a foundation of independence, freedom and happiness. He will not suffer to be taken from us what He, in His great wisdom has thought proper to confer and bless us with, if we make a wise and virtuous use of His good gifts. * * *

Although our affairs, at the commencement of the war, wore a gloomy aspect, they have brightened, and promise a certainty of success, if properly directed and conducted, of which I have no doubt, as the President and heads of departments of the general Government are men of undoubted patriotism, talents and experience, and who have grown old in the service of their country. * * * It must be obvious to every thinking man that we were forced into the war. Every measure consistent with honor, both before and since the declaration of war, has tried to be on amicable terms with our enemy. * * * You who reside in various parts of the Territory have it in your power to understand what will tend to its local and general advantage. The judiciary system would require a revisal and amendment. The militia law is very defective and requires your immediate attention. It is necessary to have good roads and highways in as many directions through the Territory as the circumstances and situation of the

inhabitants will admit; it would contribute very much to promote the settlement and improvement of the Territory. Attention to education is highly necessary. There is an appropriation made by Congress, in lands, for the purpose of establishing public schools. It comes now within your province to carry into operation the design of the appropriation."

This Legislature passed several very necessary laws for the welfare of the settlements, and the following year, as Gen. Harrison was generally successful in his military campaigns in the Northwest, the settlements in Indiana began to increase and improve. The fear of danger from Indians had in a great measure subsided, and the tide of immigration began again to flow. In January, 1814, about a thousand Miamis assembled at Fort Wayne for the purpose of obtaining food to prevent starvation. They met with ample hospitality, and their example was speedily followed by others. These, with other acts of kindness, won the lasting friendship of the Indians, many of whom had fought in the interests of Great Britain. General treaties between the United States and the Northwestern tribes were subsequently concluded, and the way was fully opened for the improvement and settlement of the lands.

POPULATION IN 1815.

The population of the Territory of Indiana, as given in the official returns to the Legislature of 1815, was as follows, by counties:

<i>Counties—</i>	<i>White males of 21 and over.</i>	<i>Total.</i>
Wayne.....	1,225	6,467
Franklin.....	1,430	7,370
Dearborn.....	902	4,424
Switzerland.....	377	1,832
Jefferson.....	874	4,270
Clark.....	1,387	7,156
Washington.....	1,420	7,317
Harrison.....	1,056	6,975
Knox.....	1,391	8,068
Gibson.....	1,100	5,330
Posey.....	320	1,619
Warriek.....	280	1,415
Perry.....	350	1,720
Grand totals.....	12,112	63,897

GENERAL VIEW.

The well-known ordinance of 1787 conferred many "rights and privileges" upon the inhabitants of the Northwestern Territory, and consequently upon the people of Indiana Territory, but after all it came far short of conferring as many privileges as are enjoyed at the present day by our Territories. They did not have a full form of Republican government. A freehold estate in 500 acres of land was one of the necessary qualifications of each member of the legislative council of the Territory; every member of the Territorial House of Representatives was required to hold, in his own right, 200 acres of land; and the privilege of voting for members of the House of Representatives was restricted to those inhabitants who, in addition to other qualifications, owned severally at least 50 acres of land. The Governor of the Territory was invested with the power of appointing officers of the Territorial militia, Judges of the inferior Courts, Clerks of the Courts, Justices of the Peace, Sheriffs, Coroners, County Treasurers and County Surveyors. He was also authorized to divide the Territory into districts; to apportion among the several counties the members of the House of Representatives; to prevent the passage of any Territorial law; and to convene and dissolve the General Assembly whenever he thought best. None of the Governors, however, ever exercised these extraordinary powers arbitrarily. Nevertheless, the people were constantly agitating the question of extending the right of suffrage. Five years after the organization of the Territory, the Legislative Council, in reply to the Governor's Message, said: "Although we are not as completely independent in our legislative capacity as we would wish to be, yet we are sensible that we must wait with patience for that period of time when our population will burst the trammels of a Territorial government, and we shall assume the character more consonant to Republicanism. * * The confidence which our fellow citizens have uniformly had in your administration has been such that they have hitherto had no reason to be jealous of the unlimited power which you possess over our legislative proceedings. We, however, cannot help regretting that such powers have been lodged in the hands of any one, especially when it is recollected to what dangerous lengths the exercise of those powers may be extended."

After repeated petitions the people of Indiana were empowered by Congress to elect the members of the Legislative Council by popular vote. This act was passed in 1809, and de-

fined what was known as the property qualification of voters. These qualifications were abolished by Congress in 1811, which extended the right of voting for members of the General Assembly and for a Territorial delegate to Congress to every free white male person who had attained the age of twenty-one years, and who, having paid a county or Territorial tax, was a resident of the Territory and had resided in it for a year. In 1814 the voting qualification in Indiana was defined by Congress, "to every free white male person having a freehold in the Territory, and being a resident of the same." The House of Representatives was authorized by Congress to lay off the Territory into five districts, in each of which the qualified voters were empowered to elect a member of the Legislative Council. The division was made, one to two counties in each district.

At the session in August, 1814, the Territory was also divided into three judicial circuits, and provisions were made for holding courts in the same. The Governor was empowered to appoint a presiding Judge in each circuit, and two Associate Judges of the circuit court in each county. Their compensation was fixed at \$700 per annum.

The same year the General Assembly granted charters to two banking institutions, the Farmers' and Mechanics' Bank of Madison and the Bank of Vincennes. The first was authorized to raise a capital of \$750,000, and the other \$500,000. On the organization of the State these banks were merged into the State Bank and its branches.

Here we close the history of the Territory of Indiana.

ORGANIZATION OF THE STATE.

The last regular session of the Territorial Legislature was held at Corydon, convening in December, 1815. The message of Governor Posey congratulated the people of the Territory upon the general success of the settlements and the great increase of immigration, recommended light taxes and a careful attention to the promotion of education and the improvement of the State roads and highways. He also recommended a revision of the territorial laws and an amendment of the militia system. Several laws were passed preparatory to a State Government, and December 14, 1815, a memorial to Congress was adopted praying for the authority to adopt a constitution and State Government. Mr. Jennings, the Territorial delegate, laid his memorial before Congress on the 28th, and April 19, 1816, the President approved the bill creating the State of Indiana. Accordingly, May 30 following, a general election was held for a constitutional convention, which met at Corydon June 10 to 29, Jonathan Jennings presiding and Wm. Hendricks acting as Secretary.

"The convention that formed the first constitution of the State of Indiana was composed mainly of clear-minded, unpretending men of common sense, whose patriotism was unquestionable and whose morals were fair. Their familiarity with the theories of the Declaration of American Independence, their Territorial experience under the provisions of the ordinance of 1787, and their knowledge of the principles of the constitution of the United States were sufficient, when combined, to lighten materially their labors in the great work of forming a constitution for a new State. With such landmarks in view, the labors of similar conventions in other States and Territories have been rendered comparatively light. In the clearness and conciseness of its style, in the comprehensive and just provisions which it made for the maintenance of civil and religious liberty, in its mandates, which were designed to protect the rights of the people collectively and individually, and to provide for the public welfare, the constitution that was formed for Indiana in 1816 was not inferior to any of the State constitutions which were in existence at that time."—*Dillon's History of Indiana*.

The first State election took place on the first Monday of August, 1816, and Jonathan Jennings was elected Governor, and Christopher Harrison, Lieut. Governor. Wm. Hendricks was elected to represent the new State in the House of Representatives of the United States.

The first General Assembly elected under the new constitution began its session at Corydon, Nov. 4, 1816. John Paul was called to the chair of the Senate pro tem., and Isaac Blackford was elected Speaker of the House of Representatives.

Among other things in the new Governor's message were the following remarks: "The result of your deliberation will be considered as indicative of its future character as well as of the future happiness and prosperity of its citizens. In the commencement of the State government the shackles of the colonial should be forgotten in our exertions to prove, by happy experience, that a uniform adherence to the first principles of our Government and a virtuous exercise of its powers will best secure efficiency to its measures and stability to its character. Without a frequent recurrence to those principles, the administration of the Government will imperceptibly become more and more arduous, until the simplicity of our Republican institutions may eventually be lost in dangerous expedients and political design. Under every free government the happiness of the citizens must be identified with their morals; and while a constitutional exercise of their rights shall continue to have its due weight in discharge of the duties required of the constituted authorities of the State, too much attention cannot be bestowed to the encouragement and promotion of every moral virtue, and to the enactment of laws calculated to restrain the vicious, and prescribe punishment for every crime commensurate with its enormity. In measuring, however, to each crime its adequate punishment, it will be well to recollect that the certainty of punishment has generally the surest effect to prevent crime; while punishments unnecessarily severe too often produce the acquittal of the guilty and disappoint one of the greatest objects of legislation and good government. * * * The dissemination of useful knowledge will be indispensably necessary as a support to morals and as a restraint to vice; and on this subject it will only be necessary to direct your attention to the plan of education as prescribed by the constitution. * * * I recommend to your consideration the propriety of providing by law, to prevent more effectually any unlawful attempts to seize and carry into bondage persons of color legally entitled to their freedom; and at the same time, as far as practicable, to prevent those who

rightfully owe service to the citizens of any other State or Territory from seeking within the limits of this State a refuge from the possession of their lawful owners. Such a measure will tend to secure those who are free from any unlawful attempts (to enslave them) and secures the rights of the citizens of the other States and Territories as far as ought reasonably to be expected."

This session of the Legislature elected James Noble and Walter Taylor to the Senate of the United States; Robert A. New was elected Secretary of State; W. H. Lilley, Auditor of State; and Daniel C. Lane, Treasurer of State. The session adjourned January 3, 1817.

As the history of the State of Indiana from this time forward is best given by topics, we will proceed to give them in the chronological order of their origin.

The happy close of the war with Great Britain in 1814 was followed by a great rush of immigrants to the great Territory of the Northwest, including the new States, all now recently cleared of the enemy; and by 1820 the State of Indiana had more than doubled her population, having at this time 147,178 and by 1825 nearly doubled this again, that is to say, a round quarter of a million,—a growth more rapid probably than that of any other section in this country since the days of Columbus.

The period 1825-'30 was a prosperous time for the young State. Immigration continued to be rapid, the crops were generally good and the hopes of the people raised higher than they had ever been before. Accompanying this immigration, however, were paupers and indolent people, who threatened to be so numerous as to become a serious burden. On this subject Governor Ray called for legislative action, but the Legislature scarcely knew what to do and they deferred action.

BLACK HAWK WAR.

In 1830 there still lingered within the bounds of the State two tribes of Indians, whose growing indolence, intemperate habits, dependence upon their neighbors for the bread of life, diminished prospects of living by the chase, continued perpetration of murders and other outrages of dangerous precedent, primitive ignorance and unrestrained exhibitions of savage customs before the children of the settlers, combined to make them subjects for a more rigid government. The removal of the Indians west of the Mississippi was a melancholy but necessary duty. The time having arrived for the emigration of the Pottawatomies, according to the stipulations contained in their treaty with the United States, they evinced that reluctance common among aboriginal tribes on leaving the homes of their childhood and the graves of their ancestors. Love of country is a principle planted in the bosoms of all mankind. The Laplander and the Esquimaux of the frozen north, who feed on seals, moose and the meat of the polar bear, would not exchange their country for the sunny clime of "Araby the blest." Color and shades of complexion have nothing to do with the heart's best, warmest emotions. Then we should not wonder that the Pottawatomie, on leaving his home on the Wabash, felt as sad as Eschines did when ostracised from his native land, laved by the waters of the classic Scamander; and the noble and eloquent Nas-waw-kay, on leaving the encampment on Crooked creek, felt his banishment as keenly as Cicero when thrust from the bosom of his beloved Rome, for which he had spent the best efforts of his life, and for which he died.

On Sunday morning, May 18, 1832, the people on the west side of the Wabash were thrown into a state of great consternation, on account of a report that a large body of hostile Indians had approached within 15 miles of Lafayette and killed two men. The alarm soon spread throughout Tippecanoe, Warren, Vermillion, Fountain, Montgomery, and adjoining counties. Several brave commandants of companies on the west side of the Wabash in Tippecanoe county, raised troops to go and meet the enemy, and dispatched an express to Gen. Walker with a request that he should make a call upon the militia of the county to equip themselves instantly

and march to the aid of their bleeding countrymen. Thereupon Gen. Walker, Col. Davis, Lieut.-Col. Jenners, Capt. Brown, of the artillery, and various other gallant spirits mounted their war steeds and proceeded to the army, and thence upon a scout to the Grand Prairie to discover, if possible, the number, intention and situation of the Indians. Over 300 old men, women and children flocked precipitately to Lafayette and the surrounding country east of the Wabash. A remarkable event occurred in this stampede, as follows:

A man, wife and seven children resided on the edge of the Grand Prairie, west of Lafayette, in a locality considered particularly dangerous. On hearing of this alarm he made hurried preparations to fly with his family to Lafayette for safety. Imagine his surprise and chagrin when his wife told him she would not go one step; that she did not believe in being scared at trifles, and in her opinion there was not an Indian within 100 miles of them. Importunity proved unavailing, and the disconsolate and frightened husband and father took all the children except the youngest, bade his wife and babe a long and solemn farewell, never expecting to see them again, unless perhaps he might find their mangled remains, minus their scalps. On arriving at Lafayette his acquaintances rallied and berated him for abandoning his wife and child in that way, but he met their jibes with a stoical indifference, avowing that he should not be held responsible for their obstinacy.

As the shades of the first evening drew on, the wife felt lonely; and the chirping of the frogs and the notes of the whippoorwill only intensified her loneliness, until she half wished she had accompanied the rest of the family in their flight. She remained in the house a few hours without striking a light, and then concluded that "discretion was the better part of valor," took her babe and some bed-clothes, fastened the cabin door, and hastened to a sink-hole in the woods, in which she afterward said that she and her babe slept soundly until sunrise next morning.

Lafayette literally boiled over with people and patriotism. A meeting was held at the court-house, speeches were made by patriotic individuals, and to allay the fears of the women an armed police was immediately ordered, to be called the "Lafayette Guards." Thos. T. Benbridge was elected Captain, and John Cox, Lieutenant. Capt. Benbridge yielded the active drill of his guards to the Lieutenant, who had served two years in the war of 1812. After the meeting adjourned, the guards were paraded on the green where Purdue's block now stands, and put through sundry evolutions by Lieut. Cox, who

proved to be an expert drill officer, and whose clear, shrill voice rung out on the night air as he marched and counter-marched the troops from where the paper-mill stands to Main street ferry, and over the suburbs, generally. Every old gun and sword that could be found was brought into requisition, with a new shine on them.

Gen. Walker, Colonels Davis and Jenners, and other officers joined in a call of the people of Tippecanoe county for volunteers to march to the frontier settlements. A large meeting of the citizens assembled in the public square in the town, and over 300 volunteers, mostly mounted men, left for the scene of action, with an alacrity that would have done credit to veterans.

The first night they camped nine miles west of Lafayette near Grand Prairie. They placed sentinels for the night and retired to rest. A few of the subaltern officers very injudiciously concluded to try what effect a false alarm would have upon the sleeping soldiers, and a few of them withdrew to a neighboring thicket, and thence made a charge upon the picket guards, who, after hailing them and receiving no countersign, fired off their guns and ran for the Colonels' marque in the center of the encampment. The aroused Colonels and staff sprang to their feet, shouting "To arms! to arms!" and the obedient, though panic-stricken soldiers seized their guns and demanded to be led against the invading foe. A wild scene of disorder ensued, and amid the din of arms and loud commands of the officers the raw militia felt that they had already got into the red jaws of battle. One of the alarm sentinels, in running to the center of the encampment, leaped over a blazing camp fire, and alighted full upon the breast and stomach of a sleeping lawyer, who was, no doubt, at that moment dreaming of vested and contingent remainders, rich clients and good fees, which in legal parlance was suddenly estopped by the hob-nails in the stogas of the scared sentinel. As soon as the counselor's vitality and consciousness sufficiently returned, he put in some strong demurrers to the conduct of the affrighted picket men, averring that he would greatly prefer being wounded by the enemy to being run over by a cowardly booby. Next morning the organizers of the ruse were severely reprimanded.

May 28, 1832, Governor Noble ordered General Walker to call out his whole command, if necessary, and supply arms, horses and provisions, even though it be necessary to seize them. The next day four baggage wagons, loaded with camp equipments, stores, provisions and other articles, were sent to

the little army, who were thus provided for a campaign of five or six weeks. The following Thursday a squad of cavalry, under Colonel Sigler, passed through Lafayette on the way to the hostile region; and on the 13th of June Colonel Russell, commandant of the 40th Regiment, Indiana Militia, passed through Lafayette with 340 mounted volunteers from the counties of Marion, Hendricks and Johnson. Also, several companies of volunteers from Montgomery, Fountain and Warren counties, hastened to the relief of the frontier settlers. The troops from Lafayette marched to Sugar creek, and after a short time, there being no probability of finding any of the enemy, were ordered to return. They all did so except about 45 horsemen, who volunteered to cross Hickory creek, where the Indians had committed their depredations. They organized a company by electing Samuel McGeorge, a soldier of the war of 1812, Captain, and Amos Allen and Andrew W. Ingraham, Lieutenants.

Crossing Hickory creek, they marched as far as O'Plein river without meeting with opposition. Finding no enemy here they concluded to return. On the first night of their march home they encamped on the open prairie, posting sentinels, as usual. About ten o'clock it began to rain, and it was with difficulty that the sentinels kept their guns dry. Capt. F. H. Cox and a man named Fox had been posted as sentinels within 15 or 20 paces of each other. Cox drew the skirt of his overcoat over his gun-lock to keep it dry; Fox, perceiving this motion, and in the darkness taking him for an Indian, fired upon him and fractured his thigh-bone. Several soldiers immediately ran toward the place where the flash of the gun had been seen; but when they cocked and leveled their guns on the figure which had fired at Cox, the wounded man caused them to desist by crying, "Don't shoot him, it was a sentinel who shot me." The next day the wounded man was left behind the company in care of four men, who, as soon as possible, removed him on a litter to Col. Moore's company of Illinois militia, then encamped on the O'Plein, where Joliet now stands.

Although the main body returned to Lafayette in eight or nine days, yet the alarm among the people was so great that they could not be induced to return to their farms for some time. The presence of the hostiles was hourly expected by the frontier settlements of Indiana, from Vincennes to La Porte. In Clinton county the inhabitants gathered within the forts and prepared for a regular siege, while our neighbors at Crawfordsville were suddenly astounded by the arrival of

a courier at full speed with the announcement that the Indians, more than a thousand in number, were then crossing the Nine-Mile prairie about twelve miles north of town, killing and scalping all. The strongest houses were immediately put in a condition of defense, and sentinels were placed at the principal points in the direction of the enemy. Scouts were sent out to reconnoitre, and messengers were dispatched in different directions to announce the danger to the farmers, and to urge them to hasten with their families into town, and to assist in fighting the momentarily expected savages. At night-fall the scouts brought in news that the Indians had not crossed the Wabash, but were hourly expected at Lafayette. The citizens of Warren, Fountain and Vermillion counties were alike terrified by exaggerated stories of Indian massacres, and immediately prepared for defense. It turned out that the Indians were not within 100 miles of these temporary forts, but this by no means proved a want of courage in the citizens.

After some time had elapsed, a portion of the troops were marched back into Tippecanoe county and honorably discharged; but the settlers were still loth for a long time to return to their farms. Assured by published reports that the Miamis and Pottawatomies did not intend to join the hostiles, the people by degrees recovered from the panic and began to attend to their neglected crops.

During this time there was actual war in Illinois. Black Hawk and his warriors, well nigh surrounded by a well-disciplined foe, attempted to cross to the west bank of the Mississippi, but after being chased up into Wisconsin and to the Mississippi again, he was in a final battle taken captive. A few years after his liberation, about 1837 or 1838, he died, on the banks of the Des Moines river, in Iowa, in what is now the county of Davis, where his remains were deposited above ground, in the usual Indian style. His remains were afterward stolen and carried away, but they were recovered by the Governor of Iowa and placed in the museum of the Historical Society at Burlington, where they were finally destroyed by fire.

LAST EXODUS OF THE INDIANS.

In July, 1837, Col. Abel C. Pepper convened the Pottawatomie nation of Indians at Lake Ke-waw-nay for the purpose of removing them west of the Mississippi. That fall a small party of some 80 or 90 Pottawatomies was conducted west of the Mississippi river by George Proffit, Esq. Among the number were Ke-waw-nay, Nebash, Nas-waw-kay, Pash-po-ho and many other leading men of the nation. The regular emigration of these poor Indians, about 1,000 in number, took place under Col. Pepper and Gen. Tipton in the summer of 1838.

It was a sad and mournful spectacle to witness these children of the forest slowly retiring from the home of their childhood, that contained not only the graves of their revered ancestors, but also many endearing scenes to which their memories would ever recur as sunny spots along their pathway through the wilderness. They felt that they were bidding farewell to the hills, valleys and streams of their infancy; the more exciting hunting-grounds of their advanced youth, as well as the stern and bloody battle-fields where they had contended in riper manhood, on which they had received wounds, and where many of their friends and loved relatives had fallen covered with gore and with glory. All these they were leaving behind them, to be desecrated by the plowshare of the white man. As they cast mournful glances back toward these loved scenes that were rapidly fading in the distance, tears fell from the cheek of the downcast warrior, old men trembled, matrons wept, the swarthy maiden's cheek turned pale, and sighs of half-suppressed sobs escaped from the motley groups as they passed along, some on foot, some on horseback, and others in wagons,—sad as a funeral procession. Several of the aged warriors were seen to cast glances toward the sky, as if they were imploring aid from the spirits of their departed heroes, who were looking down upon them from the clouds, or from the Great Spirit, who would ultimately redress the wrongs of the red man, whose broken bow had fallen from his hand, and whose sad heart was bleeding within him. Ever and anon one of the party would start out into the brush and break back to their old encampments on Eel river and on the Tippecanoe, declaring that they would rather die than be ban-

ished from their country. Thus, scores of discontented emigrants returned from different points on their journey; and it was several years before they could be induced to join their countrymen west of the Mississippi.

Several years after the removal of the Pottawatomies the Miami nation was removed to their Western home, by coercive means, under an escort of United States troops. They were a proud and once powerful nation, but at the time of their removal were far inferior, in point of numbers, to the Pottawatomie guests whom they had permitted to settle and hunt upon their lands, and fish in their lakes and rivers after they had been driven southward by powerful and warlike tribes who inhabited the shores of the Northern lakes.

INDIAN TITLES.

In 1831 a joint resolution of the Legislature of Indiana, requesting an appropriation by Congress for the extinguishment of the Indian title to lands within the State, was forwarded to that body, which granted the request. The Secretary of War, by authority, appointed a committee of three citizens to carry into effect the provisions of the recent law. The Miamis were surrounded on all sides by the American settlers, and were situated almost in the heart of the State on the line of the canal then being made. The chiefs were called to a council for the purpose of making a treaty; they promptly came, but peremptorily refused to go westward or sell the remainder of their land. The Pottawatomies sold about 6,000,000 acres in Indiana, Illinois and Michigan, including all their claim in this State.

In 1838 a treaty was concluded with the Miami Indians through the good offices of Col. A. C. Pepper, the Indian agent, by which a considerable of the most desirable portion of their reserve was ceded to the United States.

LAND SALES.

As an example of the manner in which land speculators were treated by the early Indianians, we cite the following instances from Cox's "Recollections of the Wabash Valley":

At Crawfordsville, Dec. 24, 1824, many parties were present from the eastern and southern portions of the State, as well as from Ohio, Kentucky, Tennessee and even Pennsylvania, to attend a land sale. There was but little bidding against each other. The settlers, or "squatters," as they were called by the speculators, had arranged matters among themselves to their general satisfaction. If, upon comparing numbers, it appeared that two were after the same tract of land, one would ask the other what he would take not to bid against him; if neither would consent to be bought off, they would retire and cast lots, and the lucky one would enter the tract at Congress price, \$1.25 an acre, and the other would enter the second choice on his list. If a speculator made a bid, or showed a disposition to take a settler's claim from him, he soon saw the whites of a score of eyes glaring at him, and he would "crawfish" out of the crowd at the first opportunity.

The settlers made it definitely known to foreign capitalists that they would enter the tracts of land they had settled upon before allowing the latter to come in with their speculations. The land was sold in tiers of townships, beginning at the southern part of the district, and continuing north until all had been offered at public sale. This plan was persisted in, although it kept many on the ground for several days waiting, who desired to purchase land in the northern part of the district.

In 1827 a regular Indian scare was gotten up to keep speculators away for a short time. A man who owned a claim on Tippecanoe river, near Pretty Prairie, fearing that some one of the numerous land hunters constantly scouring the country might enter the land he had settled upon before he could raise the money to buy it, and seeing one day a cavalcade of land hunters riding toward where his land lay mounted his horse and darted off at full speed to meet them, swinging his hat and shouting at the top of his voice, "Indians! Indians! the woods are full of Indians, murdering and scalp-

ing all before them!" They paused a moment, but as the terrified horseman still urged his jaded animal and cried, "Help! Longlois, Cicots, help!" they turned and fled like a troop of retreating cavalry, hastening to the thickest settlements and giving the alarm, which spread like fire among stubble until the whole frontier region was shocked with the startling cry. The squatter who fabricated the story and started this false alarm took a circuitous route home that evening, and while others were busy building temporary block-houses and rubbing up their guns to meet the Indians, he was quietly gathering up money and slipped down to Crawfordsville and entered his land, chuckling to himself, "There's a Yankee trick for you, done up by a Hoosier."

HARMONY COMMUNITY.

In 1814 a society of Germans under Frederick Rappe, who had originally come from Wurtemberg, Germany, and more recently from Pennsylvania, founded a settlement on the Wabash about 50 miles above its mouth. They were industrious, frugal and honest Lutherans. They purchased a large quantity of land and laid off a town, to which they gave the name of Harmony, afterward called New Harmony. They erected a church and a public school-house, opened farms, planted orchards and vineyards, built flouring mills, established a house of public entertainment, a public store, and carried on all the arts of peace with skill and regularity. Their property was "in common," according to the custom of ancient Christians at Jerusalem, but the governing power, both temporal and spiritual, was vested in Frederick Rappe, the elder, who was regarded as the founder of the society. By the year 1821 the society numbered about 900. Every individual of proper age contributed his proper share of labor. There were neither spendthrifts, idlers nor drunkards, and during the whole 17 years of their sojourn in America there was not a single lawsuit among them. Every controversy arising among them was settled by arbitration, explanation and compromise before sunset of the day, literally according to the injunction of the apostle of the New Testament.

About 1825 the town of Harmony and a considerable quantity of land adjoining was sold to Robert Owen, father of David Dale Owen, the State Geologist, and of Robert Dale Owen, of later notoriety. He was a radical philosopher from Scotland, who had become distinguished for his philanthropy and opposition to Christianity. He charged the latter with

teaching false notions regarding human responsibility— notions which have since been clothed in the language of physiology, mental philosophy, etc. Said he:

“That which has hitherto been called wickedness in our fellow men has proceeded from one of two distinct causes, or from some combination of those causes. They are what are termed bad or wicked.

“1. Because they are born with faculties or propensities which render them more liable, under the same circumstances, than other men, to commit such actions as are usually denominated wicked; or,

“2. Because they have been placed by birth or other events in particular countries,—have been influenced from infancy by parents, playmates and others, and have been surrounded by those circumstances which gradually and necessarily trained them in the habits and sentiments called wicked; or

“3. They have become wicked in consequence of some particular combination of these causes.

“If it should be asked, Whence then has wickedness proceeded? I reply, Solely from the ignorance of our forefathers.

“Every society which exists at present, as well as every society which history records, has been formed and governed on a belief in the following notions, assumed as first principles:

“1. That it is in the power of every individual to form his own character. Hence the various systems called by the name of religion, codes of law, and punishment; hence, also, the angry passions entertained by individuals and nations toward each other.

“2. That the affections are at the command of the individual. Hence insincerity and degradation of character; hence the miseries of domestic life, and more than one-half of all the crimes of mankind.

“3. That it is necessary a large portion of mankind should exist in ignorance and poverty in order to secure to the remaining part such a degree of happiness as they now enjoy. Hence a system of counteraction in the pursuits of men, a general opposition among individuals to the interests of each other, and the necessary effects of such a system,—ignorance, poverty and vice.”

THE MEXICAN WAR.

During the administration of Gov. Whitecomb the war with Mexico occurred, which resulted in annexing to the United States vast tracts of land in the south and west. Indiana contributed her full ratio to the troops in that war, and with a remarkable spirit of promptness and patriotism adopted all measures to sustain the general Government. These new acquisitions of territory re-opened the discussion of the slavery question, and Governor Whitecomb expressed his opposition to a further extension of the "national sin."

The causes which led to a declaration of war against Mexico in 1846 must be sought for as far back as the year 1830, when the present State of Texas formed a province of New and Independent Mexico. During the years immediately preceding 1830, Moses Austin, of Connecticut, obtained a liberal grant of lands from the established Government, and on his death his son was treated in an equally liberal manner. The glowing accounts rendered by Austin and the vivid picture of Elysian Fields drawn by visiting journalists, soon resulted in the influx of a large tide of immigrants, nor did the movement to the Southwest cease until 1830. The Mexican province held a prosperous population, comprising 10,000 American citizens. The rapacious Government of the Mexicans looked with greed and jealousy upon their eastern province, and, under the presidency of Gen. Santa Anna, enacted such measures, both unjust and oppressive, as would meet their design of goading the people of Texas on to revolution, and thus afford an opportunity for the infliction of punishment upon subjects whose only crime was industry and its accompaniment, prosperity. Precisely in keeping with the course pursued by the British toward the colonists of the Eastern States in the last century, Santa Anna's Government met the remonstrances of the colonists of Texas with threats; and they, secure in their consciousness of right, quietly issued their declaration of independence and proved its literal meaning on the field of Gonzales in 1835, having with a force of 500 men forced the Mexican army of 1,000 to fly for refuge to their strongholds. Battle after battle followed, bringing victory

always to the Colonists, and ultimately resulting in the total rout of the Mexican army and the evacuation of Texas. The routed army after a short term of rest reorganized, and reappeared in the Territory, 8,000 strong. On April 21, a division of this large force under Santa Anna encountered the Texans under General Samuel Houston, on the banks of the San Jacinto, and though Houston could only oppose 800 men to the Mexican legions, the latter were driven from the field, nor could they reform their scattered ranks until their General was captured next day and forced to sign the declaration of 1835. The signature of Santa Anna, though ignored by the Congress of the Mexican Republic, and consequently left unratified on the part of Mexico, was effected in so much, that after the second defeat of the army of that Republic all the hostilities of an important nature ceased, the Republic of Texas was recognized by the powers, and subsequently became an integral part of the United States, July 4, 1846. At this period General Herrera was president of Mexico. He was a man of peace, of common sense, and very patriotic; and he thus entertained, or pretended to entertain, the great neighboring Republic in high esteem. For this reason he grew unpopular with his people, and General Paredes was called to the presidential chair, which he continued to occupy until the breaking out of actual hostilities with the United States, when Gen. Santa Anna was elected thereto.

President Polk, aware of the state of feeling in Mexico, ordered Gen. Zachary Taylor, in command of the troops in the Southwest, to proceed to Texas, and post himself as near to the Mexican border as he deemed prudent. At the same time an American squadron was dispatched to the vicinity in the Gulf of Mexico. In November, General Taylor had taken his position at Corpus Christi, a Texan settlement on a bay of the same name, with about 4,000 men. On the 13th of January, 1846, the President ordered him to advance with his forces to the Rio Grande; accordingly he proceeded, and in March stationed himself on the north bank of that river, within cannon-shot of the Mexican town of Matamoras. Here he hastily erected a fortress called Fort Brown. The territory lying between the river Nueces and the Rio Grande river, about 120 miles in width, was claimed both by Texas and Mexico; according to the latter, therefore, General Taylor had actually invaded her territory, and had thus committed an open act of war. On the 26th of April, the Mexican General, Ampudia, gave notice to this effect to General Taylor, and on the same day a party of American dragoons, sixty-three in num-

ber, being on the north side of the Rio Grande, were attacked and, after the loss of sixteen men killed and wounded, were forced to surrender. Their commander, Captain Thornton, only escaped. The Mexican forces had now crossed the river above Matamoras and were supposed to meditate an attack on Point Isabel, where Taylor had established a depot of supplies for his army. On the 1st of May, this officer left a small number of troops at Fort Brown, and marched with his chief forces, twenty-three hundred men, to the defense of Point Isabel. Having garrisoned this place, he set out on his return. On the 8th of May, about noon, he met the Mexican army, six thousand strong, drawn up in battle array, on the prairie near Palo Alto. The Americans at once advanced to the attack, and, after an action of five hours, in which the artillery was very effective, drove the enemy before them, and encamped upon the field. The Mexican loss was about one hundred killed; that of the Americans, four killed and forty wounded. Major Ringgold, of the artillery, an officer of great merit, was mortally wounded. The next day, as the Americans advanced, they again met the enemy in a strong position near Resaca de la Palma, three miles from Fort Brown. An action commenced, and was fiercely contested, the artillery on both sides being served with great vigor. At last the Mexicans gave way, and fled in confusion, General de la Vega having fallen into the hands of the Americans. They also abandoned their guns and a large quantity of ammunition to the victors. The remaining Mexican soldiers speedily crossed the Rio Grande, and the next day the Americans took up their position at Fort Brown. This little fort, in the absence of General Taylor, had gallantly sustained an almost uninterrupted attack of several days from the Mexican batteries of Matamoras.

When the news of the capture of Captain Thornton's party was spread over the United States, it produced great excitement. The President addressed a message to Congress, then in session, declaring "that war with Mexico existed by her own act;" and that body, May, 1846, placed ten millions of dollars at the President's disposal, and authorized him to accept the services of fifty thousand volunteers. A great part of the summer of 1846 was spent in preparation for the war, it being resolved to invade Mexico at several points. In pursuance of this plan, General Taylor, who had taken possession of Matamoras, abandoned by the enemy in May, marched northward in the enemy's country in August, and on the 19th of September he appeared before Monterey, capital of the

Mexican state of New Leon. His army, after having garrisoned several places along his route, amounted to six thousand men. The attack began on the 21st, and after a succession of assaults, during the period of four days, the Mexicans capitulated, leaving the town in possession of the Americans. In October, General Taylor terminated an armistice into which he had entered with the Mexican General, and again commenced offensive operations. Various towns and fortresses of the enemy now rapidly fell into our possession. In November, Saltillo, the capital of the State of Coahuila, was occupied by the division of General Worth; in December, General Patterson took possession of Victoria, the capital of Tamaulipas, and nearly at the same period, Commodore Perry captured the fort of Tampico. Santa Fe, the capital of New Mexico, with the whole territory of the State had been subjugated by General Harney, after a march of one thousand miles through the wilderness. Events of a startling character had taken place at still earlier dates along the Pacific Coast. On the 4th of July, Captain Fremont, having repeatedly defeated superior Mexican forces with the small band under his command, declared California independent of Mexico. Other important places in this region had yielded to the American naval force, and in August, 1846, the whole of California was in the undisputed occupation of the Americans.

The year 1847 opened with still more brilliant victories on the part of our armies. By the drawing off of a large part of General Taylor's troops for a meditated attack on Vera Cruz, he was left with a comparatively small force to meet the great body of Mexican troops, now marching upon him, under command of the celebrated Santa Anna, who had again become President of Mexico.

Ascertaining the advance of this powerful army, twenty thousand strong, and consisting of the best of the Mexican soldiers, General Taylor took up his position at Buena Vista, a valley a few miles from Saltillo. His whole troops numbered only four thousand, seven hundred and fifty-nine, and here, on the 23d of February, he was vigorously attacked by the Mexicans. The battle was very severe, and continued nearly the whole day, when the Mexicans fled from the field in disorder with a loss of nearly two thousand men. Santa Anna speedily withdrew, and thus abandoned the region of the Rio Grande to the complete occupation of our troops. This left our forces at liberty to prosecute the grand enterprise of the campaign, the capture of the strong town of Vera Cruz, with its renowned castle of San Juan d'Ulloa. On the 9th

of March, 1847, General Scott landed near the city with an army of twelve thousand men, and on the 18th commenced an attack. For four days and nights an almost incessant shower of shot and shells was poured upon the devoted town, while the batteries of the castle and the city replied with terrible energy. At last, as the Americans were preparing for an assault, the Governor of the city offered to surrender, and on the 26th the American flag floated triumphantly from the walls of the castle and the city. General Scott now prepared to march upon the City of Mexico, the capital of the country, situated two hundred miles in the interior, and approached only through a series of rugged passes and mountain fastnesses, rendered still more formidable by several strong fortresses. On the 8th of April the army commenced their march. At Cerro Gordo Santa Anna had posted himself with fifteen thousand men. On the 18th the Americans began the daring attack, and by midday every intrenchment of the enemy had been carried. The loss of the Mexicans in this remarkable battle, besides one thousand killed and wounded, was three thousand prisoners, forty-three pieces of cannon, five thousand stand of arms, and all their ammunition and materials of war. The loss of the Americans was four hundred and thirty-one in killed and wounded. The next day our forces advanced, and, capturing fortress after fortress, came on the 18th of August within ten miles of Mexico, a city of two hundred thousand inhabitants, and situated in one of the most beautiful valleys in the world. On the 20th they attacked and carried the strong batteries of Contreras, garrisoned by 7,000 men, in an impetuous assault, which lasted but seventeen minutes. On the same day an attack was made by the Americans on the fortified post of Churubusco, four miles northeast of Contreras. Here nearly the entire Mexican army—more than 20,000 in number—were posted; but they were defeated at every point, and obliged to seek a retreat in the city, or the still remaining fortress of Chapultepec. While preparations were being made on the 21st by General Scott, to level his batteries against the city, prior to summoning it to surrender, he received propositions from the enemy, which terminated in an armistice. This ceased on the 7th of September. On the 8th the outer defense of Chapultepec was successfully stormed by General Worth, though he lost one-fourth of his men in the desperate struggle. The castle of Chapultepec, situated on an abrupt and rocky eminence, 150 feet above the surrounding country, presented a most formidable object of attack. On the 12th, however, the batteries were opened against it, and on the

next day the citadel was carried by storm. The Mexicans still struggled along the great causeway leading to the city, as the Americans advanced, but before nightfall a part of our army was within the gates of the city. Santa Anna and the officers of the Government fled, and the next morning at seven o'clock, the flag of the Americans floated from the national palace of Mexico. This conquest of the capital was the great and final achievement of the war. The Mexican republic was in fact prostrate, her sea-coast and chief cities being in the occupation of our troops. On the 2d of February, 1848, terms of peace were agreed upon by the American commissioner and the Mexican Government, this treaty being ratified by the Mexican Congress on the 30th of May following, and by the United States soon after. President Polk proclaimed peace on the 4th of July, 1848. In the preceding sketch we have given only a mere outline of the war with Mexico. We have necessarily passed over many interesting events and have not even named many of our soldiers who performed gallant and important services. General Taylor's successful operations in the region of the Rio Grande were duly honored by the people of the United States by bestowing upon him the Presidency. General Scott's campaign, from the attack on Vera Cruz to the surrender of the city of Mexico, was far more remarkable and, in a military point of view, must be considered as one of the most brilliant of modern times. It is true the Mexicans are not to be ranked with the great nations of the earth; with a population of seven or eight millions, they have little more than a million of the white race, the rest being half-civilized Indians and mestizos, that is, those of mixed blood. Their government is inefficient, and the people divided among themselves. Their soldiers often fought bravely, but they were badly officered. While, therefore, we may consider the conquest of so extensive and populous a country, in so short a time, and attended with such constant superiority even to the greater numbers of the enemy, as highly gratifying evidence of the courage and capacity of our army, still we must not, in judging of our achievements, fail to consider the weakness of the nation whom we vanquished. One thing we may certainly dwell upon with satisfaction—the admirable example, not only as a soldier, but as a man, set by our commander, Gen. Scott, who seems, in the midst of war and the ordinary license of the camp, always to have preserved the virtue, kindness, and humanity belonging to a state of peace. These qualities secured to him the respect, confidence and good will even of the enemy he had conquered. Among the Generals who ef-

fectually aided General Scott in this remarkable campaign, we must not omit to mention the names of Generals Wool, Twiggs, Shields, Worth, Smith, and Quitman, who generally added to the high qualities of soldiers the still more estimable characteristics of good men. The treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo stipulated that the disputed territory between the Nueces and the R'io Grande should belong to the United States, and it now forms a part of Texas, as has been already stated; that the United States should assume and pay the debts due from Mexico to American citizens, to the amount of \$3,500,000; and that, in consideration of the sum of \$15,000,000 to be paid by the United States to Mexico, the latter should relinquish to the former the whole of New Mexico and Upper California.

The soldiers of Indiana who served in this war were formed into five regiments of volunteers, numbered respectively, 1st, 2d, 3d, 4th and 5th. The fact that companies of the three first named regiments served at times with the men of Illinois, the New York volunteers, the Palmettos of South Carolina, and United States marines, under Gen. James Shields, makes for them a history; because the campaigns of the Rio Grande and Chihuahua, the siege of Vera Cruz, the desperate encounter at Cerro Gordo, the tragic contests in the valley, at Contreras and Churubusco, the storming of Chapultepec, and the planting of the stars and stripes upon every turret and spire within the conquered city of Mexico, were all carried out by the gallant troops under the favorite old General, and consequently each of them shared with him in the glories attached to such exploits. The other regiments under Cols. Gorman and Lane participated in the contests of the period under other commanders. The 4th Regiment of Indiana Volunteers, comprising ten companies, was formally organized at Jeffersonville, Indiana, by Capt. R. C. Gatlin, June 15, 1847; and on the 16th elected Major Willis A. Gorman, of the 3d Regiment, to the Colonelcy; Ebenezer Dumont, Lieutenant-Colonel, and W. McCoy, Major. On the 27th of June the regiment left Jeffersonville for the front, and subsequently was assigned to Brigadier General Lane's command, which then comprised a battery of five pieces from the 3d Regiment U. S. Artillery; a battery of two pieces from the 2nd Regiment U. S. Artillery, the 4th Regiment of Indiana Volunteers and the 4th Regiment of Ohio, with a squadron of mounted Louisianians and detachments of recruits for the U. S. Army. The troops of this brigade won signal honors at Paso de Ovegas, August 10, 1847; National Bridge, on the 12th; Cerro Gordo, on the 15th; Las Animas, on the 19th, under Maj. F. T. Lally, of General Lane's

staff, and afterward under Lane, directly, took a very prominent part in the siege of Puebla, which began on the 15th of September and terminated on the 12th of October. At Atlixco, October 19th; Tlascala, November 10th; Matamoros and Pass Galajara, November 23rd and 24th; Guerrilla Rancho, December 5th; Napaloucan, December 10th, the Indiana volunteers of the 4th Regiment performed gallant service, and carried the campaign into the following year, representing their State at St. Martin's, February 27, 1848; Cholula, March 26th; Matacordeca, February 19th; Sequalteplan, February 25th; and on the cessation of hostilities reported at Madison, Indiana, for discharge, July 11, 1848; while the 5th Indiana Regiment, under Col. J. H. Lane, underwent a similar round of duty during its service with other brigades, and gained some celebrity at Vera Cruz, Churubusco and with the troops of Illinois under Gen. Shields, at Chapultepec.

This war cost the people of the United States sixty-six millions of dollars. This very large amount was not paid away for the attainment of mere glory; there was something else at stake, and this something proved to be a country larger and more fertile than the France of the Napoleons, and more steady and sensible than the France of the Republic. It was the defense of the great Lone Star State, the humiliation and chastisement of a quarrelsome neighbor.

SLAVERY.

We have already referred to the prohibition of slavery in the Northwestern Territory, and Indiana Territory, by the ordinance of 1787; to the imperfection in the execution of this ordinance and the troubles which the authorities encountered; and the complete establishment of the principles of freedom on the organization of the State. The next item of significance in this connection is the following language in the message of Gov. Ray to the Legislature of 1828: "Since our last separation, while we have witnessed with anxious solicitude the bel-ligerent operations of another hemisphere, the cross contend-ing against the crescent, and the prospect of a general rap-ture among the legitimates of other quarters of the globe, our attention has been arrested by proceedings in our own coun-try truly dangerous to liberty, seriously premeditated, and disgraceful to its authors if agitated only to tamper with the American people. If such experiments as we see attempted in certain deluded quarters do not fall with a burst of thun-der upon the heads of their seditious projectors, then indeed the Republic has begun to experience the days of its degen-eracy. The union of these States is the people's only sure charter for their liberties and independence. Dissolve it and each State will soon be in a condition as deplorable as Alex-ander's conquered countries after they were divided amongst his victorious military captains."

In pursuance of a joint resolution of the Legislature of 1850, a block of native marble was procured and forwarded to Washington, to be placed in the monument then in the course of erection at the National Capital in memory of George Wash-ington. In the absence of any legislative instruction concern-ing the inscription upon this emblem of Indiana's loyalty, Gov. Wright ordered the following words to be inscribed upon it: INDIANA KNOWS NO NORTH, NO SOUTH, NOTHING BUT THE UNION. Within a dozen years thereafter this noble State demonstrated to the world her loyalty to the Union and the principles of freedom by the sacrifice of blood and treasure which she made. In keeping with this sentiment Gov. Wright indorsed the compromise measures of Congress on the slavery question, remarking in his message that "Indiana takes her stand in the ranks, not of Southern destiny, nor yet of North-

ern destiny: she plants herself on the basis of the Constitution and takes her stand in the ranks of American destiny."

FIFTEENTH AMENDMENT

At the session of the Legislature in January, 1869, the subject of ratifying the fifteenth amendment to the Federal Constitution, allowing negro suffrage, came up with such persistency that neither party dared to undertake any other business lest it be checkmated in some way, and being at a dead lock on this matter, they adjourned in March without having done much important business. The Democrats, as well as a portion of the conservative Republicans, opposed its consideration strongly on the ground that it would be unfair to vote on the question until the people of the State had had an opportunity of expressing their views at the polls; but most of the Republicans resolved to push the measure through, while the Democrats resolved to resign in a body and leave the Legislature without a quorum. Accordingly, on March 4, 17 Senators and 36 Representatives resigned, leaving both houses without a quorum.

As the early adjournment of the Legislature left the benevolent institutions of the State unprovided for, the Governor convened that body in extra session as soon as possible, and after the necessary appropriations were made, on the 19th of May the fifteenth amendment came up; but in anticipation of this the Democratic members had all resigned and claimed that there was no quorum present. There was a quorum, however, of Senators in office, though some of them refused to vote, declaring that they were no longer Senators; but the president of that body decided that as he had not been informed of their resignation by the Governor, they were still members. A vote was taken and the ratifying resolution was adopted. When the resolution came up in the House, the chair decided that, although the Democratic members had resigned, there was a quorum of the *de facto* members present, and the House proceeded to pass the resolution. This decision of the chair was afterward sustained by the Supreme Court.

At the next regular session of the Legislature, in 1871, the Democrats undertook to repeal the ratification, and the Republican members resigned to prevent it. The Democrats, as the Republicans did on the previous occasion, proceeded to pass their resolution of repeal; but while the process was under way, before the House Committee had time to report on the matter, 34 Republican members resigned, thereby preventing its passage and putting a stop to further legislation.

INDIANA IN THE WAR.

The events of the earlier years of this State have been reviewed down to that period in the nation's history when the Republic demanded a first sacrifice from the newly erected States; to the time when the very safety of the glorious heritage, bequeathed by the fathers as a rich legacy, was threatened with a fate worse than death—a life under laws that harbored the slave—a civil defiance of the first principles of the Constitution.

Indiana was among the first to respond to the summons of patriotism, and register itself on the national roll of honor, even as she was among the first to join in that song of joy which greeted a Republic made doubly glorious within a century by the dual victory which won liberty for itself, and next bestowed the precious boon upon the colored slave.

The fall of Fort Sumter was a signal for the uprising of the State. The news of the calamity was flashed to Indianapolis on the 14th of April, 1861, and early the next morning the electric wire brought the welcome message to Washington:—

EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT OF INDIANA, }
INDIANAPOLIS, April 15, 1861. }

TO ABRAHAM LINCOLN, *President of the United States*:—On behalf of the State of Indiana, I tender to you for the defense of the Nation, and to uphold the authority of the Government, ten thousand men.

OLIVER P. MORTON,

Governor of Indiana.

This may be considered the first official act of Governor Morton, who had just entered on the duties of his exalted position. The State was in an almost helpless condition, and yet the faith of the "War Governor" was prophetic, when, after a short consultation with the members of the Executive Council, he relied on the fidelity of ten thousand men and promised their services at the Protectorate at Washington. This will be more apparent when the military condition of the State at the beginning of 1861 is considered. At that time the armories contained less than five hundred stand of serviceable small arms, eight pieces of cannon which might be useful in a museum of antiquities, with sundry weapons which would merely do credit to the aborigines of one hundred years ago. The financial condition of the State was even worse than the military. The sum of \$10,368.58 in trust funds was the amount

of cash in the hands of the Treasurer, and this was, to all intents and purposes unavailable to meet the emergency, since it could not be devoted to the military requirements of the day. This state of affairs was dispiriting in the extreme, and would doubtless have militated against the ultimate success of any other man than Morton; yet he overleaped every difficulty, nor did the fearful realization of Floyd's treason, discovered during his visit to Washington, damp his indomitable courage and energy, but with rare persistence he urged the claims of his State, and for his exertions was requited with an order for five thousand muskets. The order was not executed until hostilities were actually entered upon, and consequently for some days succeeding the publication of the President's proclamation the people labored under a feeling of terrible anxiety mingled with uncertainty, amid the confusion which followed the criminal negligence that permitted the disbandment of the magnificent *corps d' armee* (51,000 men) of 1832 two years later in 1834. Great numbers of the people maintained their equanimity with the result of beholding within a brief space of time every square mile of their State represented by soldiers prepared to fight to the bitter end in defense of cherished institutions, and for the extension of the principle of human liberty to all States and classes within the limits of the threatened Union. This, their zeal, was not animated by hostility to the slave holders of the Southern States, but rather by a fraternal spirit, akin to that which urges the eldest brother to correct the persistent follies of his juniors, and thus lead them from crime to the maintenance of family honor; in this correction, to draw them away from all that was cruel, diabolical and inhuman in the Republic, to all that is gentle, holy and sublime therein. Many of the raw troops were not only animated by a patriotic feeling, but also by that beautiful idealization of the poet, who in his unconscious Republicanism, said:

"I would not have a slave to till my ground,
To carry me, to fan me while I sleep,
And tremble when I wake, for all the wealth
That sinews bought and sold have ever earned.
No; dear as freedom is — and, in my heart's
Just estimation, prized above all price —
I had much rather be myself the slave,
And wear the bonds, than fasten them on him."

Thus animated, it is not a matter for surprise to find the first call to arms issued by the President, and calling for 75,000 men, answered nobly by the people of Indiana. The quota of troops to be furnished by the State on the first call was 4,683

men for three years' service from April 15, 1860. On the 16th of April, Governor Morton issued his proclamation calling on all citizens of the State, who had the welfare of the Republic at heart, to organize themselves into six regiments in defense of their rights, and in opposition to the varied acts of rebellion, charged by him against the Southern Confederates. To this end, the Hon. Lewis Wallace, a soldier of the Mexican campaign, was appointed Adjutant-General, Col. Thomas A. Morris of the United States Military Academy, Quartermaster-General, and Isaiah Mimsur, a merchant of Indianapolis, Commissary-General. These general officers converted the grounds and buildings of the State Board of Agriculture into a military headquarters, and designated the position Camp Morton, as the beginning of the many honors which were to follow the popular Governor throughout his future career. Now the people, imbued with confidence in their Government and leaders, rose to the grandeur of American freemen, and with an enthusiasm never equaled hitherto, flocked to the standard of the nation; so that within a few days (19th April) 2,400 men were ranked beneath their regimental banners, until as the official report testifies, the anxious question, passing from month to month, was, "Which of us will be allowed to go?" It seemed as if Indiana was about to monopolize the honors of the period, and place the 75,000 men demanded of the Union by the President, at his disposition. Even now under the genial sway of guaranteed peace, the features of Indiana's veterans flush with righteous pride when these days—remembrances of heroic sacrifice—are named, and freemen, still unborn, will read their history only to be blessed and glorified in the possession of such truly, noble progenitors. Nor were the ladies of the State unmindful of their duties. Everywhere they partook of the general enthusiasm, and made it practical so far as in their power, by embroidering and presenting standards and regimental colors, organizing aid and relief societies, and by many other acts of patriotism and humanity inherent in the high nature of woman.

During the days set apart by the military authorities for the organization of the regiments, the financiers of the State were engaged in the reception of munificent grants of money from private citizens, while the money merchants within and without the State offered large loans to the recognized Legislature without even imposing a condition of payment. This most practical generosity strengthened the hands of the Executive, and within a very few days Indiana had passed the crucial test, recovered some of her military prestige lost in 1834, and so

was prepared to vie with the other and wealthier States in making sacrifices for the public welfare.

On the 20th of April, Messrs. I. S. Dobbs and Alvis D. Gall received their appointments as Medical Inspectors of the Division, while Major T. J. Wood arrived at headquarters from Washington to receive the newly organized regiments into the service of the Union. At the moment this formal proceeding took place, Morton, unable to restrain the patriotic ardor of the people, telegraphed to the capitol that he could place six regiments of infantry at the disposal of the General Government within six days, if such a proceeding were acceptable; but in consequence of the wires being cut between the State and Federal capitals, no answer came. Taking advantage of the little doubt which may have had existence in regard to future action in the matter and in the absence of general orders, he gave expression to an intention of placing the volunteers in camp, and in his message to the Legislature, who assembled three days later, he clearly laid down the principle of immediate action and strong measures, recommending a note of \$1,000,000 for the reorganization of the volunteers, for the purchase of arms and supplies, and for the punishment of treason. The message was received most enthusiastically. The assembly recognized the great points made by the Governor, and not only yielded to them *in toto*, but also made the following grand appropriations:

General military purposes.....	\$1,000,000
Purchase of arms.....	500,000
Contingent military expenses.....	100,000
Organization and support of militia for two years	140,000

These appropriations, together with the laws enacted during the session of the Assembly, speak for the men of Indiana. The celerity with which these laws were put in force, the diligence and economy exercised by the officers, entrusted with their administration, and that systematic genius, under which all the machinery of Government seemed to work in harmony, —all, all, tended to make for the State a spring-time of noble deeds, when seeds might be cast along her fertile fields and in the streets of her villages of industry to grow up at once and blossom in the ray of fame, and after to bloom throughout the ages. Within three days after the opening of the extra session of the Legislature (27th April) six new regiments were organized, and commissioned for three months' service. These regiments, notwithstanding the fact that the first six regiments were already mustered into the general service, were known

as "The First Brigade, Indiana Volunteers," and with the simple object of making the way of the future student of a brilliant history clear, were numbered respectively

Sixth Regiment, commanded by Col. T. T. Crittenden.

Seventh Regiment, commanded by Col. Ebenezer Dumont.

Eighth Regiment, commanded by Col. W. P. Benton.

Ninth Regiment, commanded by Col. R. H. Milroy.

Tenth Regiment, commanded by Col. T. T. Reynolds.

Eleventh Regiment, commanded by Col. Lewis Wallace.

The idea of these numbers was suggested by the fact that the military representation of Indiana in the Mexican Campaign was one brigade of five regiments, and to observe consecutiveness the regiments comprised in the first division of volunteers were thus numbered, and the entire force placed under Brigadier General T. A. Morris, with the following staff: John Love, Major; Cyrus C. Hines, Aid-de-camp; and J. A. Stein, Assistant Adjutant General. To follow the fortunes of these volunteers through all the vicissitudes of war would prove a special work; yet their valor and endurance during their first term of service deserved a notice of even more value than that of the historian, since a commander's opinion has to be taken as the basis upon which the chronicler may expatiate. Therefore the following dispatch, dated from the headquarters of the Army of Occupation, Beverly Camp, W. Virginia, July 21, 1861, must be taken as one of the first evidences of their utility and valor:—

GOVERNOR O. P. MORTON, *Indianapolis, Indiana.*

GOVERNOR:—I have directed the three months' regiments from Indiana to move to Indianapolis, there to be mustered out and reorganized for three years' service.

I cannot permit them to return to you without again expressing my high appreciation of the distinguished valor and endurance of the Indiana troops, and my hope that but a short time will elapse before I have the pleasure of knowing that they are again ready for the field. * * * * *

I am, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

GEORGE B. McCLELLAN,

Major-General, U. S. A.

On the return of the troops to Indianapolis, July 29, Brigadier Morris issued a lengthy, logical and well-deserved congratulatory address, from which one paragraph may be extracted to characterize the whole. After passing a glowing eulogium on their military qualities and on that unexcelled gallantry displayed at Laurel Hill, Phillipi and Carriek's Ford, he says:—

Soldiers! You have now returned to the friends whose prayers went with you to the field of strife. They welcome you with pride and exultation. Your State and country acknowledge the value of your labors. May your future career be as your past has been,—honorable to yourselves and serviceable to your country.

The six regiments forming Morris' brigade, together with one composed of the surplus volunteers, for whom there was no regiment in April, now formed a division of seven regiments, all reorganized for three years' service, between the 20th August and 20th September, with the exception of the new or 12th, which was accepted for one year's service, from May 11th, under command of Colonel John M. Wallace, and reorganized May 17, 1862, for three years' service under Col. W. H. Link, who, with 172 officers and men, received their mortal wounds during the Richmond (Kentucky) engagement, three months after its reorganization.

The Thirteenth Regiment, under Col. Jeremiah Sullivan, was mustered into the United States in 1861 and joined Gen. McClellan's command at Rich Mountain on the 10th July. The day following it was present under Gen. Rosencrans and lost eight men killed; three successive days it was engaged under Gen. I. I. Reynolds, and won its laurels at Cheat Mountain summit, where it participated in the decisive victory over Gen. Lee.

The Fourteenth Regiment, organized in 1861 for one year's service, and reorganized on the 7th of June at Terre Haute for three years' service. Commanded by Col. Kimball and showing a muster roll of 1,134 men, it was one of the finest, as it was the first, three years' regiments organized in the State, with varying fortunes attached to its never ending round of duty from Cheat Mountain, September, 1861, to Morton's Ford in 1864, and during the movement South in May of that year to the last of its labors, the battle of Cold Harbor.

The Fifteenth Regiment, reorganized at La Fayette, 14th June, 1861, under Col. G. D. Wagner, moved on Rich Mountain on the 11th of July in time to participate in the complete rout of the enemy. On the promotion of Col. Wagner, Lieutenant-Col. G. A. Wood became Colonel of the regiment, November 1862, and during the first days of January, 1863, took a distinguished part in the severe action of Stone River. From this period down to the battle of Mission Ridge it was in a series of destructive engagements, and was, after enduring terrible hardships, ordered to Chattanooga, and thence to Indianapolis where it was mustered out the 18th June, 1864,—four days after the expiration of its term of service.

The Sixteenth Regiment, organized under Col. P. A. Hackleman at Richmond for one year's service, after participating in many minor military events, was mustered out at Washington, D. C., on the 14th of May, 1862. Col. Hackleman was killed at the battle of Inka, and Lieutenant-Col. Thomas I. Lucas succeeded to the command. It was reorganized at Indianapolis

for three years' service, May 27, 1862, and took a conspicuous part in all the brilliant engagements of the war down to June, 1865, when it was mustered out at New Orleans. The survivors, numbering 365 rank and file, returned to Indianapolis the 10th of July amid the rejoicing of the populace.

The Seventeenth Regiment was mustered into service at Indianapolis the 12th of June, 1861, for three years, under Col. Hascall, who on being promoted Brigadier-General in March, 1862, left the Colonelcy to devolve on Lieutenant-Colonel John T. Wilder. This regiment participated in the many exploits of Gen. Reynold's army from Green Brier in 1862, to Macon in 1865, under Gen. Wilson. Returning to Indianapolis the 16th of August, in possession of a brilliant record, the regiment was disbanded.

The Eighteenth Regiment, under Col. Thomas Pattison, was organized at Indianapolis, and mustered into service on the 16th of August, 1861. Under Gen. Pope it gained some distinction at Blackwater, and succeeded in retaining a reputation made there, by its gallantry at Pea Ridge, February, 1862, down to the moment when it planted the regimental flag on the arsenal of Augusta, Georgia, where it was disbanded August 28, 1865.

The Nineteenth Regiment, mustered into three years' service at the State capital July 29, 1861, was ordered to join the army of the Potomac, and reported its arrival at Washington, August 9. Two days later it took part in the battle of Lewinsville, under Colonel Solomon Meredith. Occupying Falls Church in September, 1861, it continued to maintain a most enviable place of honor on the military roll until its consolidation with the 20th Regiment, October, 1864, under Colonel William Orr, formerly its Lieutenant-Colonel.

The Twentieth Regiment of La Fayette was organized in July, 1861, mustered into three years' service at Indianapolis on the 22d of the same month, and reached the front at Cockeysville, Maryland, twelve days later. Throughout all its brilliant actions from Hatteras Bank, on the 4th of October, to Clover Hill, 9th of April, 1865, including the saving of the United States ship *Congress*, at Newport News, it added daily some new name to its escutcheon. This regiment was mustered out at Louisville in July, 1865, and returning to Indianapolis was welcomed by the great war governor of their State.

The Twenty-first Regiment was mustered into service under Col. I. W. McMillan, July 24, 1861, and reported at the front the third day of August. It was the first regiment to enter New Orleans. The fortunes of this regiment were as varied as

its services, so that its name and fame, grown from the blood shed by its members, are destined to live and flourish. In December, 1863, the regiment was reorganized, and on the 19th February, 1864, many of its veterans returned to their State, where Morton received them with that spirit of proud gratitude which he was capable of showing to those who deserve honor for honors won.

The Twenty-second Regiment, under Col. Jeff. C. Davis, left Indianapolis the 15th of August, and was attached to Fremont's Corps at St. Louis on the 17th. From the day it moved to the support of Col. Mulligan at Lexington, to the last victory, won under General Sherman at Bentonville, on the 19th of March, 1865, it gained a high military reputation. After the fall of Johnston's southern army, this regiment was mustered out, and arrived at Indianapolis on the 16th June.

The Twenty-third Regiment, commanded by Col. W. L. Sanderson, was mustered in at New Albany, the 29th July, 1861, and moved to the front early in August. From its unfortunate marine experiences before Fort Henry to Bentonville it won unusual honors, and after its disbandment at Louisville, returned to Indianapolis July 24, 1865, where Governor Morton and General Sherman reviewed and complimented the gallant survivors.

The Twenty-fourth Battalion, under Col. Alvin P. Hovey, was mustered at Vincennes the 31st of July, 1861. Proceeding immediately to the front it joined Fremont's command, and participated under many Generals in important affairs during the war. Three hundred and ten men and officers returned to their State in August, 1865, and were received with marked honors by the people and Executive.

The Twenty-fifth Regiment of Evansville, mustered into service there for three years under Col. J. C. Veatch, arrived at St. Louis on the 26th of August, 1861. During the war this regiment was present at 18 battles and skirmishes, sustaining therein a loss of 352 men and officers. Mustered out at Louisville, July 17, 1865, it returned to Indianapolis on the 21st amid universal rejoicing.

The Twenty-sixth Battalion, under W. M. Wheatley, left Indianapolis for the front the 7th of September, 1861, and after a brilliant campaign under Fremont, Grant, Heron and Smith, may be said to disband the 18th of September, 1865, when the non-veterans and recruits were reviewed by Morton at the State capital.

The Twenty-seventh Regiment, under Col. Silas Colgrove, moved from Indianapolis to Washington City, September 15th.

1861, and in October was allied to Gen. Banks' army. From Winchester Heights, the 9th of March, 1862, through all the affairs of General Sherman's campaign, it acted a gallant and faithful part, and was disbanded immediately after returning to their State.

The Twenty-eighth or First Cavalry was mustered into service at Evansville on the 20th of August, 1861, under Col. Conrad Baker. From the skirmish at Ironton, on the 12th of September, wherein three companies under Col. Gavin captured a position held by a few rebels, to the battle of the Wilderness, the First Cavalry performed prodigies of valor. In June and July, 1865, the troops were mustered out at Indianapolis.

The Twenty-ninth Battalion of La Porte, under Col. J. F. Miller, left on the 5th of October, 1861, and reaching Camp Nevin, Kentucky, on the 9th, was allied to Rosseau's Brigade, serving with McCook's division at Shiloh, with Buell's army in Alabama, Tennessee and Kentucky, with Rosencrans at Murfreesboro, at Decatur, Alabama, and at Dalton, Georgia. The Twenty-ninth won many laurels, and had its Colonel promoted to the rank of Brigadier-General. This officer was succeeded in the command by Lieutenant-Col. D. M. Dunn.

The Thirtieth Regiment of Fort Wayne, under Col. Sion S. Bass, proceeded to the front *via* Indianapolis, and joined General Rosseau at Camp Nevin on the 9th of October, 1861. At Shiloh, Col. Bass received a mortal wound, and died a few days later at Paducah, leaving the Colonelcy to devolve upon Lieutenant-Col. J. B. Dodge. In October, 1865, it formed a battalion of General Sheridan's army of observation in Texas.

The Thirty-first Regiment, organized at Terre Haute, under Col. Charles Cruft, in September, 1861, was mustered in, and left in a few days for Kentucky. Present at the reduction of Fort Donelson on the 13th, 14th, and 15th of February, 1862, its list of killed and wounded proves its desperate fighting qualities. The organization was subjected to many changes, but in all its phases maintained a fair fame won on many battle-fields. Like the former regiment, it passed into Gen. Sheridan's Army of Observation, and held the district of Green Lake, Texas.

The Thirty-second Regiment of German Infantry, under Col. August Willich, organized at Indianapolis, mustered on the 24th of August, 1861, served with distinction throughout the campaign. Col. Willich was promoted to the rank of Brigadier-General, and Lieut.-Col. Henry Von Trebra commissioned to act, under whose command the regiment passed into Gen. Sheridan's Army, holding the post of Salado Creek, until the withdrawal of the corps of observation in Texas.

The Thirty-third Regiment of Indianapolis possesses a military history of no small proportions. The mere facts that it was mustered in under Col. John C. Colburn, the 16th of September, won a series of distinctions throughout the war district and was mustered out at Louisville, July 21, 1865, taken with its name as one of the most powerful regiments engaged in the war, are sufficient here.

The Thirty-fourth Battalion, organized at Anderson on the 16th September, 1861, under Col. Ashbury Steele, appeared among the investing battalions before New Madrid on the 30th of March, 1862. From the distinguished part it took in that siege, down to the 13th of May, 1865, when at Palmetto Rancho, near Palo Alto, it fought for hours against fearful odds the last battle of the war for the Union. Afterwards it marched 250 miles up the Rio Grande, and was the first regiment to reoccupy the position, so long in Southern hands, of Ringold barracks. In 1865 it garrisoned Beaconsville as part of the Army of Observation.

The Thirty-fifth or First Irish Regiment, was organized at Indianapolis, and mustered into service on the 11th day of December, 1861, under Col. John C. Walker. At Nashville, on the 22d of May, 1862, it was joined by the organized portion of the Sixty-first or Second Irish Regiment, and unassigned recruits. Col. Mullen now became Lieut.-Colonel of the 35th, and shortly after, its Colonel. From the pursuit of Gen. Bragg through Kentucky and the affair at Perryville on the 8th of October, 1862, to the terrible hand to hand combat at Kenesaw mountain, on the night of the 20th of June, 1864, and again from the conclusion of the Atlanta campaign to September, 1865, with Gen. Sheridan's army, when it was mustered out, it won for itself a name of reckless daring and unsurpassed gallantry.

The Thirty-sixth Regiment, of Richmond, Ind., under Col. William Grose, mustered into service for three years on the 16th of September, 1861, went immediately to the front, and shared the fortunes of the Army of the Ohio until the 27th of February, 1862, when a forward movement led to its presence on the battle-field of Shiloh. Following up the honors won at Shiloh, it participated in some of the most important actions of the war, and was, in October, 1865, transferred to Gen. Sheridan's army. Col. Grose was promoted in 1864 to the position of Brigadier-General, and the Colonelcy devolved on Oliver H. P. Carey, formerly Lieut.-Colonel of the regiment.

The Thirty-seventh Battalion, of Lawrenceburg, commanded by Col. Geo. W. Hazzard, organized the 18th of September, 1861, left for the seat of war early in October. From the event-

ful battle of Stone River, in December, 1862, to its participation in Sherman's march through Georgia, it gained for itself a splendid reputation. This regiment returned to, and was present at, Indianapolis, on the 30th of July, 1865, where a public reception was tendered to men and officers on the grounds of the Capitol.

The Thirty-eighth Regiment, under Col. Benjamin F. Scribner, was mustered in at New Albany, on the 18th of September, 1861, and in a few days were *en route* for the front. To follow its continual round of duty, is without the limits of this sketch; therefore, it will suffice to say, that on every well-fought field, at least from February, 1862, until its dissolution, on the 15th of July, 1865, it earned an enviable renown, and drew from Gov. Morton, on returning to Indianapolis the 18th of the same month, a congratulatory address couched in the highest terms of praise.

The Thirty-ninth Regiment or Eighth Cavalry, was mustered in as an infantry regiment, under Col. T. J. Harrison, on the 28th of August, 1861, at the State capital. Leaving immediately for the front it took a conspicuous part in all the engagements up to April, 1863, when it was reorganized as a cavalry regiment. The record of this organization sparkles with great deeds which men will extol while language lives; its services to the Union cannot be over-estimated, or the memory of its daring deeds be forgotten by the unhappy people who raised the tumult, which culminated in their second shame.

The Fortieth Regiment, of Lafayette, under Col. W. C. Wilson, subsequently commanded by Col. J. W. Blake, and again by Col. Henry Leaming, was organized on the 30th of December, 1861, and at once proceeded to the front, where some time was necessarily spent in the Camp of Instruction at Bardstown, Kentucky. In February, 1862, it joined in Buell's forward movement. During the war the regiment shared in all its hardships, participated in all its honors, and like many other brave commands took service under Gen. Sheridan in his Army of Occupation, holding the post of Port Lavaca, Texas, until peace brooded over the land.

The Forty-first Regiment or Second Cavalry, the first complete regiment of horse ever raised in the State, was organized on the 3d of September, 1861, at Indianapolis, under Col. John A. Bridgland, and December 16 moved to the front. Its first war experience was gained *en route* to Corinth on the 9th of April, 1862, and at Pea Ridge on the 15th. Gallatin, Vinegar Hill, and Perryville, and Talbot Station followed in succession, each battle bringing to the cavalry untold honors. In May,

1861, it entered upon a glorious career under Gen. Sherman in his Atlanta campaign, and again under Gen. Wilson in the raid through Alabama during April, 1865. On the 22d of July, after a brilliant career, the regiment was mustered out at Nashville, and returned at once to Indianapolis for discharge.

The Forty-second, under Col. J. G. Jones, mustered into service at Evansville, October 9, 1861, and having participated in the principal military affairs of the period, Wartrace, Mission Ridge, Altoona, Kenesaw, Savannah, Charlestown, and Bentonville, was discharged at Indianapolis on the 25th of July, 1865.

The Forty-third Battalion was mustered in on the 27th of September, 1861, under Col. George K. Steele, and left Terre Haute *en route* to the front within a few days. Later it was allied to Gen. Pope's corps, and afterwards served with Commodore Foote's marines in the reduction of Fort Pillow. It was the first Union regiment to enter Memphis. From that period until the close of the war it was distinguished for its unexcelled qualifications as a military body, and fully deserved the encomiums passed upon it on its return to Indianapolis in March, 1865.

The Forty-fourth or the Regiment of the 10th Congressional District, was organized at Fort Wayne on the 24th of October, 1861, under Col. Hugh B. Reed. Two months later it was ordered to the front, and arriving in Kentucky, was attached to Gen. Cuff's Brigade, then quartered at Calhoun. After years of faithful service it was mustered out at Chattanooga, the 14th of September, 1865.

The Forty-fifth or Third Cavalry, comprised ten companies organized at different periods and for varied services in 1861-'62, under Colonel Scott Carter and George H. Chapman. The distinguished name won by the Third Cavalry is established in every village within the State. Let it suffice to add that after its brilliant participation in Gen. Sheridan's raid down the James' river canal, it was mustered out at Indianapolis on the 7th of August, 1865.

The Forty-sixth Regiment, organized at Logansport under Col. Graham N. Fitch, arrived in Kentucky the 16th of February, 1862, and a little later became attached to Gen. Pope's army, then quartered at Commerce. The capture of Fort Pillow, and its career under Generals Curtis, Palmer, Hovey, Gorman, Grant, Sherman, Banks and Burbridge are as truly worthy of applause as ever fell to the lot of a regiment. The command was mustered out at Louisville on the 4th of September, 1865.

The Forty-seventh was organized at Anderson, under Col. I. R. Stack, early in October, 1822. Arriving at Bardstown, Kentucky, on the 21st of December, it was attached to Gen. Buell's army; but within two months was assigned to Gen. Pope, under whom it proved the first regiment to enter Fort Thompson near New Madrid. In 1864 the command visited Indianapolis on veteran furlough and was enthusiastically received by Governor Morton and the people. Returning to the front it engaged heartily in Gen. Banks' company. In December, Col. Stack received his commission as Brigadier-General, and was succeeded on the regimental command by Col. J. A. McLaughlen; at Shreveport under General Heron it received the submission of General Price and his army, and there also was it mustered out of service on the 23d of October, 1865.

The Forty-eighth Regiment, organized at Goshen the 6th of December, 1861, under Col. Norman Eddy, entered on its duties during the siege of Corinth in May, and again in October, 1862. The record of this battalion may be said to be unsurpassed in its every feature, so that the grand ovation extended to the returned soldiers in 1865 at Indianapolis, is not a matter for surprise.

The Forty-ninth Regiment, organized at Jeffersonville, under Col. J. W. Ray, and mustered in on the 21st of November, 1861, for service, left *en route* for the camp at Bardstown. A month later it arrived at the unfortunate camp-ground of Cumberland Ford, where disease carried off a number of gallant soldiers. The regiment, however, survived the dreadful scourge and won its laurels on many a well-fought field until September, 1865, when it was mustered out at Louisville.

The Fiftieth Regiment, under Col. Cyrus L. Dunham, organized during the month of September, 1861, at Seymour, left *en route* to Bardstown for a course of military instruction. On the 20th of August, 1862, a detachment of the 50th, under Capt. Atkinson, was attacked by Morgan's Cavalry near Edgefield Junction; but the gallant few repulsed their oft-repeated onsets and finally drove them from the field. The regiment underwent many changes in organization, and may be said to muster out on the 10th of September, 1865.

The Fifty-first Regiment, under Col. Abel D. Streight, left Indianapolis on the 14th of December, 1861, for the South. After a short course of instruction at Bardstown, the regiment joined General Buell's and acted with great effect during the campaign in Kentucky and Tennessee. Ultimately it became a participator in the work of the Fourth Corps, or Army of Occupation, and held the post of San Antonio until peace was doubly assured.

The Fifty-second Regiment was partially raised at Rushville, and the organization completed at Indianapolis, where it was consolidated with the Railway Brigade, or Fifty-sixth Regiment, on the 2d of February, 1862. Going to the front immediately after, it served with marked distinction throughout the war, and was mustered out at Montgomery on the 10th of September, 1865. Returning to Indianapolis six days later, it was welcomed by Gov. Morton and a most enthusiastic reception accorded to it.

The Fifty-third Battalion was raised at New Albany, and with the addition of recruits raised at Rockport formed a standard regiment, under command of Col. W. Q. Gresham. Its first duty was that of guarding the rebels confined on Camp Morton, but on going to the front it made for itself an enduring name. It was mustered out in July, 1865, and returned to Indianapolis on the 25th of the same month.

The Fifty-fourth Regiment was raised at Indianapolis on the 10th of June, 1862, for three months' service under Col. D. G. Rose. The succeeding two months saw it in charge of the prisoners at Camp Morton, and in August it was pushed forward to aid in the defense of Kentucky against the Confederate General, Kirby Smith. The remainder of its short term of service was given to the cause. On the muster out of the three months' service regiment it was reorganized for one year's service and gained some distinction, after which it was mustered out in 1863 at New Orleans.

The Fifty-fifth Regiment, organized for three months' service, retains the brief history applicable to the first organization of the 54th. It was mustered in on the 16th of June, 1862, under Col. J. R. Mahon, disbanded on the expiration of its term and was not reorganized.

The Fifty-sixth Regiment, referred to in the sketch of the 52d, was designed to be composed of railroad men, marshalled under J. M. Smith as Colonel, but owing to the fact that many railroaders had already volunteered into other regiments, Col. Smith's volunteers were incorporated with the 52d, and this number left blank in the army list.

The Fifty-seventh Battalion, actually organized by two ministers of the gospel,—the Rev. L. W. T. McMullen and Rev. F. A. Hardin, of Richmond, Ind., mustered into service on the 18th of November, 1861, under the former named reverend gentleman as Colonel, who was, however, succeeded by Col. Cyrus C. Haynes, and he in turn by G. W. Leonard, Willis Blanch and John S. McGrath, the latter holding command until the conclusion of the war. The history of this battalion is extensive, and

if participation in a number of battles with the display of rare gallantry wins fame, the 57th may rest assured of its possession of this fragile yet coveted prize. Like many other regiments it concluded its military labors in the service of Gen. Sheridan, and held the post of Port Lavaca in conjunction with another regiment until peace dwelt in the land.

The Fifty-eighth Regiment of Princeton was organized there early in October, 1861, and mustered into service under the Colonelcy of Henry M. Carr. In December it was ordered to join General Buell's army, after which it took a share in the various actions of the war, and was mustered out on the 25th of July, 1865, at Louisville, having gained a place on the roll of honor.

The Fifty-ninth Battalion was raised under a commission issued by Gov. Morton to Jesse I. Alexander creating him Colonel. Owing to the peculiarities hampering its organization, Col. Alexander could not succeed in having his regiment prepared to muster in before the 17th of February, 1862. However, on that day the equipment was complete, and on the 18th it left *en route* to Commerce, where on its arrival, it was incorporated under General Pope's command. The list of its casualties speaks a history,—no less than 793 men were lost during the campaign. The regiment, after a term characterized by distinguished service, was mustered out at Louisville on the 17th of July, 1865.

The Sixtieth Regiment was partially organized under Lieut.-Col. Richard Owen at Evansville during November, 1861, and perfected at Camp Morton during March, 1862. Its first experience was its gallant resistance to Bragg's army investing Munfordsville, which culminated in the unconditional surrender of its first seven companies on the 14th of September. An exchange of prisoners took place in November, which enabled it to join the remaining companies in the field. The subsequent record is excellent, and forms, as it were, a monument to their fidelity and heroism. The main portion of this battalion was mustered out at Indianapolis, on the 21st of March, 1865.

The Sixty-first was partially organized in December, 1861, under Col. B. F. Mullen. The failure of thorough organization on the 22d of May, 1862, led the men and officers to agree to incorporation with the 35th Regiment of Volunteers.

The Sixty-second Battalion, raised under a commission issued to William Jones, of Rockport, authorizing him to organize this regiment in the First Congressional District, was so unsuccessful that consolidation with the 53d Regiment was resolved upon.

The Sixty-third Regiment, of Covington, under James McManomy, Commandant of Camp, and J. S. Williams, Adjutant, was partially organized on the 31st of December, 1861, and may be considered on duty from its very formation. After guarding prisoners at Camp Morton and Lafayette, and engaging in battle on Manassas Plains on the 30th of August following, the few companies sent out in February, 1862, returned to Indianapolis to find six new companies raised under the call of July, 1862, ready to embrace the fortunes of the 63d. So strengthened, the regiment went forth to battle, and continued to lead in the paths of honor and fidelity until mustered out in May and June, 1865.

The Sixty-fourth Regiment failed in organization as an artillery corps; but orders received from the War Department prohibiting the consolidation of independent batteries, put a stop to any further move in the matter. However, an infantry regiment bearing the same number was afterward organized.

The Sixty-fifth was mustered in at Princeton and Evansville, in July and August, 1862, under Col. J. W. Foster, and left at once *en route* for the front. The record of this battalion is creditable, not only to its members, but also to the State which claimed it. Its last action during the war was on the 18th and 20th of February, 1865, at Fort Anderson and Town creek, after which, on the 22d June, it was disbanded at Greensboro.

The Sixty-sixth Regiment partially organized at New Albany, under Commandant Roger Martin, was ordered to leave for Kentucky on the 19th of August, 1862, for the defense of that State against the incursions of Kirby Smith. After a brilliant career it was mustered out at Washington on the 3d of June, 1865, after which it returned to Indianapolis to receive the thanks of a grateful people.

The Sixty-seventh Regiment was organized within the Third Congressional District under Col. Frank Emerson, and was ordered to Louisville on the 20th of August, 1862, whence it marched to Munfordsville, only to share the same fate with the other gallant regiments engaged against Gen. Bragg's advance. Its roll of honor extends down the years of civil disturbance,—always adding garlands, until Peace called a truce in the fascinating race after fame, and insured a term of rest, wherein its members could think on comrades forever vanished, and temper the sad thought with the sublime memories born of that chivalrous fight for the maintenance and integrity of a great Republic. At Galveston on the 19th of July, 1865, the gallant 67th Regiment was mustered out, and returning within a few days to its State received the enthusiastic ovations of her citizens.

The Sixty-eighth Regiment, organized at Greensburg under Major Benjamin C. Shaw, was accepted for general service the 19th of August, 1862, under Col. Edward A. King, with Major Shaw as Lieutenant-Colonel; on the 25th its arrival at Lebanon was reported and within a few days it appeared at the defense of Mumfordsville; but sharing in the fate of all the defenders, it surrendered unconditionally to Gen. Bragg and did not participate further in the actions of that year, nor until after the exchange of prisoners in 1863. From this period it may lay claim to an enviable history extending to the end of the war, when it was disembodied.

The Sixty-ninth Regiment, of Richmond, Ind., under Col. A. Bickle, left for the front on the 20th of August, 1862, and ten days later made a very brilliant stand at Richmond, Kentucky, against the advance of Gen. Kirby Smith, losing in the engagement two hundred and eighteen men and officers together with its liberty. After an exchange of prisoners the regiment was reorganized under Col. T. W. Bennett and took the field in December, 1862, under Generals Sheldon, Morgan, and Sherman of Grant's army. Chickasaw, Vicksburg, Blakely and many other names testify to the valor of the 69th. The remnant of the regiment was in January, 1865, formed into a battalion under Oran Perry, and was mustered out in July following.

The Seventieth Regiment was organized at Indianapolis, on the 12th of August, 1862, under Col. B. Harrison, and leaving for Louisville on the 13th, shared in the honors of Bruce's division at Franklin and Russellville. The record of the regiment is brimful of honor. It was mustered out at Washington, June 8, 1865, and received at Indianapolis with public honors.

The Seventy-first or Sixth Cavalry was organized as an infantry regiment, at Terre Haute, and mustered into general service at Indianapolis on the 18th of August, 1862, under Lieut.-Col. Melville D. Topping. Twelve days later it was engaged outside Richmond, Kentucky, losing two hundred and fifteen officers and men, including Col. Topping and Major Conklin, together with three hundred and forty-seven prisoners, only 225 escaping death and capture. After an exchange of prisoners the regiment was re-formed under Col. I. Bittle, but on the 28th of December it surrendered to Gen. J. H. Morgan, who attacked its position at Muldraugh's Hill with a force of 1,000 Confederates. During September and October, 1863, it was organized as a cavalry regiment, won distinction throughout its career, and was mustered out the 15th of September, 1865, at Murfreesboro.

The Seventy-second Regiment was organized at Lafayette,

and left *en route* to Lebanon, Kentucky, on the 17th of August, 1862. Under Col. Miller it won a series of honors, and mustered out at Nashville on the 26th of June, 1865.

The Seventy-third Regiment, under Col. Gilbert Hathaway, was mustered in at South Bend on the 16th of August, 1862, and proceeded immediately to the front. Day's Gap, Crooked Creek, and the high eulogies of Generals Rosecrans and Granger speak its long and brilliant history, nor were the welcoming shouts of a great people and the congratulations of Gov. Morton, tendered to the regiment on its return home, in July, 1865, necessary to sustain its well won reputation.

The Seventy-fourth Regiment, partially organized at Fort Wayne and made almost complete at Indianapolis, left for the seat of war on the 22d of August, 1862, under Col. Charles W. Chapman. The desperate opposition to Gen. Bragg, and the magnificent defeat of Morgan, together with the battles of Dallas, Chattahoochee River, Kenesaw and Atlanta, where Lieut.-Col. Myron Baker was killed, all bear evidence of its never surpassed gallantry. It was mustered out of service on the 9th of June, 1865, at Washington. On the return of the regiment to Indianapolis, the war Governor and people tendered it special honors, and gave expression to the admiration and regard in which it was held.

The Seventy-fifth Regiment was organized within the Eleventh Congressional District, and left Wabash, on the 21st of August, 1862, for the front, under Col. I. W. Petit. It was the first regiment to enter Tullahoma, and one of the last engaged in the battles of the Republic. After the submission of Gen. Johnson's army, it was mustered out at Washington, on the 8th of June, 1865.

The Seventy-sixth Battalion was solely organized for thirty days' service under Colonel James Gavin, for the purpose of pursuing the rebel guerrillas, who plundered Newburg on the 13th July, 1862. It was organized and equipped with forty-eight hours, and during its term of service gained the name, "The Avengers of Newburg."

The Seventy-seventh, or Fourth Cavalry, was organized at the State capital in August, 1862, under Colonel Isaac P. Gray. It carved its way to fame over twenty battlefields, and retired from service at Edgefield, on the 29th June, 1865.

The Seventy-ninth Regiment was mustered in at Indianapolis on the 2d September, 1862, under Colonel Fred Kneiler. Its history may be termed a record of battles, as the great numbers of battles, from 1862 to the conclusion of hostilities, were participated in by it. The regiment received its discharge on

the 11th June, 1865, at Indianapolis. During its continued round of field duty it captured eighteen guns and over one thousand prisoners.

The Eightieth Regiment was organized within the First Congressional District under Col. C. Denby, and equipped at Indianapolis, when, on the 8th of September, 1862, it left for the front. During its term it lost only two prisoners; but its list of casualties sums up 325 men and officers killed and wounded. The regiment may be said to muster out on the 22nd of June, 1865, at Salsbury.

The Eighty-first Regiment, of New Albany, under Colonel W. W. Caldwell, was organized on the 29th August, 1862, and proceeded at once to join Buell's headquarters, and join in the pursuit of General Bragg. Throughout the terrific actions of the war its influence was felt, nor did its labors cease until it aided in driving the rebels across the Tennessee. It was disembodied at Nashville on the 13th June, 1865, and returned to Indianapolis on the 15th, to receive the well-merited congratulations of Governor Morton and the people.

The Eighty-second Regiment, under Colonel Morton C. Hunter, was mustered in at Madison, Ind., on the 30th August, 1862, and leaving immediately for the seat of war, participated in many of the great battles down to the return of peace. It was mustered out at Washington on the 9th June, 1865, and soon returned to its State to receive a grand recognition of its faithful service.

The Eighty-third Regiment, of Lawrenceburg, under Colonel Ben. J. Spooner, was organized in September, 1862, and soon left *en route* to the Mississippi. Its subsequent history, the fact of its being under fire for a total term of 4,800 hours, and its wanderings over 6,285 miles, leave nothing to be said in its defense. Master of a thousand honors, it was mustered out at Louisville, on the 15th July, 1865, and returned home to enjoy a well-merited repose.

The Eighty-fourth Regiment was mustered in at Richmond, Ind., on the 8th September, 1862, under Colonel Nelson Trusler. Its first military duty was on the defenses of Covington, in Kentucky, and Cincinnati; but after a short time its labors became more congenial, and tended to the great disadvantage of the slaveholding enemy on many well-contested fields. This, like the other State regiments, won many distinctions, and retired from the service on the 14th of June, 1865, at Nashville.

The Eighty-fifth Regiment was mustered at Terre Haute, under Colonel John P. Bayard, on the 2d September, 1862. On the 4th March, 1863, it shared in the unfortunate affair at

Thompson's Station, when in common with the other regiments forming Coburn's Brigade, it surrendered to the overpowering forces of the rebel General, Forrest. In June, 1863, after an exchange, it again took the field, and won a large portion of that renown accorded to Indiana. It was mustered out on the 12th of June, 1865.

The Eighty-sixth Regiment, of La Fayette, left for Kentucky on the 26th August, 1862, under Colonel Orville S. Hamilton, and shared in the duties assigned to the 84th. Its record is very creditable, particularly that portion dealing with the battles of Nashville on the 15th and 16th December, 1864. It was mustered out on the 6th of June, 1865, and reported within a few days at Indianapolis for discharge.

The Eighty-seventh Regiment, organized at South Bend, under Colonels Kline G. Sherlock and N. Gleason, was accepted at Indianapolis on the 31st of August, 1862, and left on the same day *en route* to the front. From Springfield and Perryville on the 6th and 8th of October, 1862, to Mission Ridge, on the 25th of November, 1863, thence through the Atlanta campaign to the surrender of the Southern armies, it upheld a gallant name, and met with a true and enthusiastic welcome home on the 21st of June, 1865, with a list of absent comrades aggregating 451.

The Eighty-eighth Regiment, organized within the Fourth Congressional District, under Col. Geo. Humphrey, entered the service on the 29th of August, 1862, and presently was found among the front ranks in war. It passed through the campaign in brilliant form down to the time of Gen. Johnson's surrender to Gen. Grant, after which, on the 7th of June, 1865, it was mustered out at Washington.

The Eighty-ninth Regiment, formed from the material of the Eleventh Congressional District, was mustered in at Indianapolis, on the 28th of August, 1862, under Col. Chas. D. Murray, and after an exceedingly brilliant campaign was discharged by Gov. Morton on the 4th of August, 1865.

The Ninetieth Regiment, or Fifth Cavalry, was organized at Indianapolis under the Colonelcy of Felix W. Graham, between August and November, 1862. The different companies, joining headquarters at Louisville on the 11th of March, 1863, engaged in observing the movements of the enemy in the vicinity of Cumberland river until the 19th of April, when a first and successful brush was had with the rebels. The regiment had been in 22 engagements during the term of service, captured 640 prisoners, and claimed a list of casualties amounting up to the number of 829. It was mustered out on the 16th of June, 1865, at Pulaski.

The Ninety-first Battalion, of seven companies, was mustered into service at Evansville, the 1st of October, 1862, under Lieut.-Colonel John Mehringer, and ten days later left for the front. In 1863 the regiment was completed, and thenceforth took a very prominent position in the prosecution of the war. During its service it lost 81 men, and retired from the field on the 26th of June, 1865.

The Ninety-second Regiment failed in organizing.

The Ninety-third Regiment was mustered in at Madison, Ind., on the 20th of October, 1862, under Col. De Witt C. Thomas and Lieut.-Col. Geo. W. Carr. On the 9th of November it began a movement south, and ultimately allied itself to Buckland's Brigade of Gen. Sherman's. On the 14th of May it was among the first regiments to enter Jackson, the capital of Mississippi; was next present at the assault on Vicksburg, and made a stirring campaign down to the storming of Fort Blakely on the 9th of April, 1865. It was discharged on the 11th of August, that year, at Indianapolis, after receiving a public ovation.

The Ninety-fourth and Ninety-fifth Regiments, authorized to be formed within the Fourth and Fifth Congressional Districts, respectively, were only partially organized, and so the few companies that could be mustered were incorporated with other regiments.

The Ninety-sixth Regiment could only bring together three companies, in the Sixth Congressional District, and these becoming incorporated with the 99th then in process of formation at South Bend, the number was left blank.

The Ninety-seventh Regiment, raised in the Seventh Congressional District, was mustered into service at Terre Haute, on the 20th of September, 1861, under Col. Robert F. Catterson. Reaching the front within a few days, it was assigned a position near Memphis, and subsequently joined in Gen. Grant's movement on Vicksburg, by overland route. After a succession of great exploits with the several armies to which it was attached, it completed its list of battles at Bentonville, on the 21st of March, 1865, and was disembodied at Washington on the 9th of June following. During its term of service the regiment lost 341 men, including the three Ensigns killed during the assaults on rebel positions along the Augusta Railway, from the 15th to the 27th of June, 1864.

The Ninety-eighth Regiment, authorized to be raised within the Eighth Congressional District, failed in its organization, and the number was left blank in the army list. The two companies answering to the call of July, 1862, were consolidated

with the 100th Regiment then being organized at Fort Wayne.

The Ninety-ninth Battalion, recruited within the Ninth Congressional District, completed its muster on the 21st of October, 1862, under Col. Alex. Fowler, and reported for service a few days later at Memphis, where it was assigned to the 16th Army Corps. The varied vicissitudes through which this regiment passed and its remarkable gallantry upon all occasions, have gained for it a fair fame. It was disembodied on the 5th of June, 1865, at Washington, and returned to Indianapolis on the 11th of the same month.

The One-hundredth Regiment, recruited from the Eighth and Tenth Congressional Districts under Col. Sanford J. Stoughton, mustered into service on the 10th of September, left for the front on the 11th of November, and became attached to the Army of Tennessee on the 26th of that month, 1862. The regiment participated in twenty-five battles, together with skirmishing during fully one-third of its term of service, and claimed a list of casualties mounting up to four hundred and sixty-four. It was mustered out of the service at Washington on the 9th of June, and reported at Indianapolis for discharge on the 14th of June, 1865.

The One Hundred and First Regiment was mustered into service at Wabash on the 7th of September, 1862, under Col. William Garver, and proceeded immediately to Covington, Kentucky. Its early experiences were gained in the pursuit of Bragg's army and John Morgan's cavalry, and these experiences tended to render the regiment one of the most valuable in the war for the Republic. From the defeat of John Morgan at Milton on the 18th of March, 1863, to the fall of Savannah on the 23rd of September, 1863, the regiment won many honors, and retired from the service on the 25th of June, 1865, at Indianapolis.

THE MORGAN RAID REGIMENTS—MINUTE MEN.

The One Hundred and Second Regiment, organized under Col. Benjamin M. Gregory from companies of the Indiana Legion, and numbering six hundred and twenty-three men and officers, left Indianapolis for the front early in July, and reported at North Vernon on the 12th of July, 1863, and having completed a round of duty, returned to Indianapolis on the 17th to be discharged.

The One Hundred and Third, comprising seven companies from Hendricks county, two from Marion and one from Wayne counties, numbering 681 men and officers, under Col. Lawrence

S. Shuler, was contemporary with the 102d Regiment, varying only in its service by being mustered out one day before, or on the 16th of July, 1863.

The One Hundred and Fourth Regiment of Minute Men was recruited from members of the Legion of Decatur, La Fayette, Madison, Marion and Rush counties. It comprised 714 men and officers under the command of Col. James Gavin, and was organized within forty hours after the issue of Governor Morton's call for minute men to protect Indiana and Kentucky against the raids of Gen. John H. Morgan's rebel forces. After Morgan's escape into Ohio the command returned and was mustered out on the 18th of July, 1863.

The One Hundred and Fifth Regiment consisted of seven companies of the Legion and three of Minute Men, furnished by Hancock, Union, Randolph, Putnam, Wayne, Clinton and Madison counties. The command numbered seven hundred and thirteen men and officers, under Col. Sherlock, and took a leading part in the pursuit of Morgan. Returning on the 18th of July to Indianapolis it was mustered out.

The One Hundred and Sixth Regiment, under Col. Isaac P. Gray, consisted of one company of the Legion and nine companies of Minute Men, aggregating seven hundred and ninety-two men and officers. The counties of Wayne, Randolph, Hancock, Howard, and Marion were represented in its rank and file. Like the other regiments organized to repel Morgan, it was disembodied in July, 1863.

The One Hundred and Seventh Regiment, under Col. De Witt C. Rugg, was organized in the city of Indianapolis from the companies' Legion, or Ward Guards. The successes of this promptly organized regiment were unquestioned.

The One Hundred and Eighth Regiment comprised five companies of Minute Men, from Tippecanoe county, two from Hancock, and one from each of the counties known as Carroll, Montgomery and Wayne, aggregating 710 men and officers and all under the command of Col. W. C. Wilson. After performing the only duties presented, it returned from Cincinnati on the 18th of July, and was mustered out.

The One Hundred and Ninth Regiment, composed of Minute Men from Coles county, Ill., La Porte, Hamilton, Miami and Randolph counties, Ind., showed a roster of 709 officers and men, under Col. J. R. Mahon. Morgan having escaped from Ohio, its duties were at an end, and returning to Indianapolis was mustered out on the 17th of July, 1863, after seven days' service.

The One Hundred and Tenth Regiment of Minute Men com-

prised volunteers from Henry, Madison, Delaware, Cass, and Monroe counties. The men were ready and willing, if not really anxious, to go to the front. But happily the swift-winged Morgan was driven away, and consequently the regiment was not called to the field.

The One Hundred and Eleventh Regiment, furnished by Montgomery, Lafayette, Rush, Miami, Monroe, Delaware and Hamilton counties, numbering 733 men and officers, under Col. Robert Canover, was not requisitioned.

The One Hundred and Twelfth Regiment was formed from nine companies of Minute Men, and the Mitchell Light Infantry Company of the Legion. Its strength was 703 men and officers, under Col. Hiram F. Braxton. Lawrence, Washington, Monroe and Orange counties were represented on its roster, and the historic names of North Vernon and Sunman's Station on its banner. Returning from the South after seven days' service, it was mustered out on the 17th of July, 1863.

The One Hundred and Thirteenth Regiment, furnished by Daviess, Martin, Washington, and Monroe counties, comprised 526 rank and file under Col. Geo. W. Burge. Like the 112th it was assigned to Gen. Hughes' Brigade, and defended North Vernon against the repeated attacks of John H. Morgan's forces.

The One Hundred and Fourteenth Regiment was wholly organized in Johnson county, under Col. Lambertson, and participated in the affair of North Vernon. Returning on the 21st of July, 1863, with its brief but faithful record, it was disembodied at Indianapolis, 11 days after its organization.

All these regiments were brought into existence to meet an emergency, and it must be confessed, that had not a sense of duty, military instinct and love of country animated these regiments, the rebel General, John H. Morgan, and his 6,000 cavalry, would doubtless have carried destruction as far as the very capital of their State.

SIX MONTHS' REGIMENTS.

The One Hundred and Fifteenth Regiment, organized at Indianapolis in answer to the call of the President in June, 1863, was mustered into service on the 17th of August, under Col. J. R. Mahon. Its service was short but brilliant, and received its discharge at Indianapolis the 10th of February, 1864.

The One Hundred and Sixteenth Regiment, mustered in on the 17th of August, 1863, moved to Detroit, Michigan, on the 30th, under Col. Charles Wise. During October it was ordered

to Nicholasville, Kentucky, where it was assigned to Col. Mahon's Brigade, and with Gen. Wilcox's entire command, joined in the forward movement to Cumberland Gap. After a term on severe duty it returned to Lafayette and there was disembodied on the 24th of February, 1864, whither Gov. Morton hastened, to share in the ceremonies of welcome.

The One Hundred and Seventeenth Regiment of Indianapolis was mustered into service on the 17th of September, 1863, under Col. Thomas J. Brady. After surmounting every obstacle opposed to it, it returned on the 6th of February, 1864, and was treated to a public reception on the 9th.

The One Hundred and Eighteenth Regiment, whose organization was completed on the 3d of September, 1863, under Col. Geo. W. Jackson, joined the 116th at Nicholasville, and sharing in its fortunes, returned to the State capital on the 14th of February, 1864. Its casualties were comprised in a list of 15 killed and wounded.

The One Hundred and Nineteenth, or Seventh Cavalry, was recruited under Col. John P. C. Shanks, and its organization completed on the 1st of October, 1863. The rank and file numbered 1,213, divided into twelve companies. On the 7th of December its arrival at Louisville was reported, and on the 14th it entered on active service. After the well-fought battle of Guntown, Mississippi, on the 10th of June, 1864, although it only brought defeat to our arms, General Grierson addressed the Seventh Cavalry, saying: "Your General congratulates you upon your noble conduct during the late expedition. Fighting against overwhelming numbers, under adverse circumstances, your prompt obedience to orders and unflinching courage commanding the admiration of all, made even defeat almost a victory. For hours on foot you repulsed the charges of the enemies' infantry, and again in the saddle you met his cavalry and turned his assaults into confusion. Your heroic perseverance saved hundreds of your fellow-soldiers from capture. You have been faithful to your honorable reputation, and have fully justified the confidence, and merited the high esteem of your commander."

Early in 1865, a number of these troops, returning from imprisonment in Southern bastiles, were lost on the steamer "Sultana." The survivors of the campaign continued in the service for a long period after the restoration of peace, and finally mustered out.

The One Hundred and Twentieth Regiment. In September, 1863, Gov. Morton received authority from the War Department to organize eleven regiments within the State for three

years' service. By April, 1864, this organization was complete, and being transferred to the command of Brigadier-General Alvin P. Hovey, were formed by him into a division for service with the Army of Tennessee. Of those regiments, the 120th occupied a very prominent place, both on account of its numbers, its perfect discipline and high reputation. It was mustered in at Columbus, and was in all the great battles of the latter years of the war. It won high praise from friend and foe, and retired with its bright roll of honor, after the success of Right and Justice was accomplished.

The One Hundred and Twenty-first, or Ninth Cavalry, was mustered in March 1, 1864, under Col. George W. Jackson, at Indianapolis, and though not numerically strong, was so well equipped and possessed such excellent material that on the 3rd of May it was ordered to the front. The record of the 121st, though extending over a brief period, is pregnant with deeds of war of a high character. On the 26th of April, 1865, these troops, while returning from their labors in the South, lost 55 men, owing to the explosion of the engines of the steamer "Sultana." The return of the 386 survivors, on the 5th of September, 1865, was hailed with joy, and proved how well and dearly the citizens of Indiana loved their soldiers.

The One Hundred and Twenty-second Regiment ordered to be raised in the Third Congressional District, owing to very few men being then at home, failed in organization, and the regimental number became a blank.

The One Hundred and Twenty-third Regiment was furnished by the Fourth and Seventh Congressional Districts during the winter of 1863-'64, and mustered, March 9, 1864, at Gremsburg, under Col. John C. McQuiston. The command left for the front the same day, and after winning rare distinction during the last years of the campaign, particularly in its gallantry at Atlanta, and its daring movement to escape Forrest's 15,000 rebel horsemen near Franklin, this regiment was discharged on the 30th of August, 1865, at Indianapolis, being mustered out on the 25th, at Raleigh, North Carolina.

The One Hundred and Twenty-fourth Regiment completed its organization by assuming three companies raised for the 125th Regiment (which was intended to be cavalry), and was mustered in at Richmond, on the 10th of March, 1864, under Colonel James Burgess, and reported at Louisville within nine days. From Buzzard's Roost, on the 8th of May, 1864, under General Schofield, Lost Mountain in June, and the capture of Decatur, on the 15th July, to the 21st March, 1865, in its grand advance under General Sherman from Atlanta to the coast, the

regiment won many laurel wreaths, and after a brilliant campaign, was mustered out at Greensboro on the 31st August, 1865.

The One Hundred and Twenty-fifth, or Tenth Cavalry, was partially organized during November and December, 1862, at Vincennes, and in February, 1863, completed its numbers and equipment at Columbus, under Colonel T. M. Pace. Early in May its arrival in Nashville was reported and presently assigned active service. During September and October it engaged rebel contingents under Forrest and Hood, and later in the battles of Nashville, Reynold's Hill and Sugar Creek, and in 1865 Flint River, Courtland and Mount Hope. The explosion of the *Sultana* occasioned the loss of thirty-five men with Captain Gaffney and Lieutenants Twigg and Reeves, and in a collision on the Nashville & Louisville railroad, May, 1864 lost five men killed and several wounded. After a term of service unsurpassed for its utility and character it was disembodied at Vicksburg, Mississippi, on the 31st August, 1865, and returning to Indianapolis early in September, was welcomed by the Executive and people.

The One Hundred and Twenty-sixth, or Eleventh Cavalry, was organized at Indianapolis under Colonel Robert R. Stewart, on the 1st of March, 1864, and left in May for Tennessee. It took a very conspicuous part in the defeat of Hood near Nashville, joining in the pursuit as far as Gravelly Springs, Alabama, where it was dismounted and assigned infantry duty. In June, 1865, it was remounted, at St. Louis, and moved to Fort Riley, Kansas, and thence to Leavenworth, where it was mustered out on the 19th September, 1865.

The One Hundred and Twenty-seventh, or Twelfth Cavalry, was partially organized at Kendallville, in December, 1863, and perfected at the same place, under Colonel Edward Anderson, in April, 1864. Reaching the front in May, it went into active service, took a prominent part in the march through Alabama and Georgia, and after a service brilliant in all its parts, retired from the field after discharge, on the 22d of November, 1865.

The One Hundred and Twenty-eighth Regiment was raised in the Tenth Congressional District of the period, and mustered at Michigan City, under Colonel R. P. De Hart, on the 18th March, 1864. On the 25th it was reported at the front, and assigned at once to Schofield's Division. The battles of Resaca, Dallas, New Hope Church, Lost Mountain, Kenesaw, Atlanta, Jonesboro, Dalton, Brentwood Hills, Nashville, and the six days' skirmish of Columbia, were all participated in by the

128th, and it continued in service long after the termination of hostilities, holding the post of Raleigh, North Carolina.

The One Hundred and Twenty-ninth Regiment was, like the former, mustered in at Michigan City about the same time, under Colonel Charles Case, and moving to the front on the 7th April, 1864, shared in the fortunes of the 128th until August 29, 1865, when it was disembodied at Charlotte, North Carolina.

The One Hundred and Thirtieth Regiment, mustered at Kokomo on the 12th March, 1864, under Colonel C. S. Parrish, left *en route* to the seat of war on the 16th, and was assigned to the Second Brigade, First Division, Twenty-third Army Corps, at Nashville, on the 19th. During the war it made for itself a brilliant history, and returned to Indianapolis with its well-won honors on the 13th December, 1865.

The One Hundred and Thirty-first, or Thirteenth Cavalry, under Col. G. M. L. Johnson, was the last mounted regiment recruited within the State. It left Indianapolis on April 30, 1864, in infantry trim, and gained its first honors on the 1st of October in its magnificent defense of Huntsville, Alabama, against the rebel division of General Buford, following a line of first-rate military conduct to the end. In January, 1865, the regiment was remounted, won some distinction in its modern form, and was mustered out at Vicksburg on the 18th of November, 1865. The *morale* and services of the regiment were such that its Colonel was promoted Brevet Brigadier-General in consideration of its merited honors.

THE ONE HUNDRED-DAYS VOLUNTEERS.

Governor Morton, in obedience to the offer made under his auspices to the general Government to raise volunteer regiments for one hundred days' service, issued his call on the 23d of April, 1864. This movement suggested itself to the inventive genius of the war Governor as a most important step toward the subjection or annihilation of the military supporters of slavery within a year, and thus conclude a war, which, notwithstanding its holy claims to the name of Battles for Freedom, was becoming too protracted and proving too detrimental to the best interests of the Union. In answer to the esteemed Governor's call eight regiments came forward and formed The Grand Division of the Volunteers.

The One Hundred and Thirty-second Regiment, under Col. S. C. Vance, was furnished by Indianapolis, Shelbyville, Frank-

lin, and Danville, and leaving on the 18th of May, 1864, reached the front where it joined the forces acting in Tennessee.

The One Hundred and Thirty-third Regiment, raised at Richmond on the 17th of May, 1864, under Col. R. N. Hudson, comprised nine companies, and followed the 132d.

The One Hundred and Thirty-fourth Regiment, comprising seven companies, was organized at Indianapolis on the 25th of May, 1864, under Col. James Gavin, and proceeded immediately to the front.

The One Hundred and Thirty-fifth Regiment was raised from the volunteers of Bedford, Noblesville and Goshen, with seven companies from the First Congressional District, under Col. W. C. Wilson, on the 25th of May, 1864, and left at once *en route* to the South.

The One Hundred and Thirty-sixth Regiment comprised ten companies, raised in the same districts as those contributing to the 135th, under Col. J. W. Foster, and left for Tennessee on the 24th of May, 1864.

The One Hundred and Thirty-seventh Regiment, under Col. E. J. Robinson, comprising volunteers from Kokomo, Zanesville, Medora, Sullivan, Rockville, and Owen and Lawrence counties, left *en route* to Tennessee on the 28th of May, 1864, having completed organization the day previous.

The One Hundred and Thirty-eighth Regiment was formed of seven companies from the Ninth, with three from the Eleventh Congressional District (unreformed), and mustered in at Indianapolis on the 27th of May, 1864, under Col. J. H. Shannon. This fine regiment was reported at the front within a few days.

The One Hundred and Thirty-ninth Regiment, under Col. Geo. Humphrey, was raised from volunteers furnished by Kendallville, Lawrenceburg, Elizaville, Knightstown, Connersville, Newcastle, Portland, Vevay, New Albany, Metamora, Columbia City, New Haven and New Philadelphia. It was constituted a regiment on the 8th of June, 1864, and appeared among the defenders in Tennessee during that month.

All these regiments gained distinction, and won an enviable position in the glorious history of the war and the no less glorious one of their own State in its relation thereto.

THE PRESIDENT'S CALL OF JULY, 1864.

The One Hundred and Fortieth Regiment was organized with many others, in response to the call of the nation. Under its Colonel, Thomas J. Brady, it proceeded to the South on the 15th of November, 1864. Having taken a most prominent part

in all the desperate struggles round Nashville and Murfreesboro in 1864, to Town Creek Bridge on the 20th of February, 1865, and completed a continuous round of severe duty to the end, arrived at Indianapolis for discharge on the 21st of July, where Governor Morton received it with marked honors.

The One Hundred and Forty-first Regiment was only partially raised, and its few companies were incorporated with Col. Brady's command.

The One Hundred and Forty-second Regiment was recruited at Fort Wayne, under Col. I. M. Comparet, and was mustered into service at Indianapolis on the 2d of November, 1864. After a steady and exceedingly effective service, it returned to Indianapolis on the 16th of July, 1865.

THE PRESIDENT'S CALL OF DECEMBER, 1864,

Was answered by Indiana in the most material terms. No less than fourteen serviceable regiments were placed at the disposal of the General Government.

The One Hundred and Forty-third Regiment was mustered in, under Col. J. T. Grill, on the 21st February, 1865, reported at Nashville on the 24th, and after a brief but brilliant service returned to the State on the 21st October, 1865.

The One Hundred and Forty-fourth Regiment, under Col. G. Riddle, was mustered in on the 6th March, 1865, left on the 9th for Harper's Ferry, took an effective part in the close of the campaign and reported at Indianapolis for discharge on the 9th August, 1865.

The One Hundred and Forty-fifth Regiment, under Col. W. A. Adams, left Indianapolis on the 18th of February, 1865, and joining Gen. Steadman's division at Chattanooga on the 23d was sent on active service. Its duties were discharged with rare fidelity until mustered out in January, 1866.

The One Hundred and Forty-sixth Regiment, under Col. M. C. Welsh, left Indianapolis on the 11th of March *en route* to Harper's Ferry, where it was assigned to the army of the Shenandoah. The duties of this regiment were severe and continuous, to the period of its muster out at Baltimore on the 31st of August, 1865.

The One Hundred and Forty-seventh Regiment, comprised among other volunteers from Benton, Lafayette and Henry counties, organized under Col. Milton Peden on the 13th of March, 1865, at Indianapolis. It shared a fortune similar to that of the 146th, and returned for discharge on the 9th of August, 1865.

The One Hundred and Forty-eighth Regiment, under Col. N. R. Ruckle, left the State capital on the 28th of February, 1865, and reporting at Nashville, was sent on guard and garrison duty into the heart of Tennessee. Returning to Indianapolis on the 8th of September, it received a final discharge.

The One Hundred and Forty-ninth Regiment was organized at Indianapolis by Col. W. H. Fairbanks, and left on the 3d of March, 1865, for Tennessee, where it had the honor of receiving the surrender of the rebel forces, and military stores of Generals Roddy and Polk. The regiment was welcomed home by Morton on the 29th of September.

The One Hundred and Fiftieth Regiment, under Col. M. B. Taylor, mustered in on the 9th of March, 1865, left for the South on the 13th and reported at Harper's Ferry on the 17th. This regiment did guard duty at Charleston, Winchester, Stevenson Station, Gordon's Springs, and after a service characterized by utility, returned on the 9th of August to Indianapolis for discharge.

The One Hundred and Fifty-first Regiment, under Col. J. Healy, arrived at Nashville on the 9th of March, 1865. On the 14th a movement on Tullahoma was undertaken, and three months later returned to Nashville for garrison duty to the close of the war. It was mustered out on the 22d of September, 1865.

The One Hundred and Fifty-second Regiment was organized at Indianapolis, under Col. W. W. Griswold, and left for Harper's Ferry on the 18th of March, 1865. It was attached to the provisional divisions of Shenandoah Army, and engaged until the 1st of September, when it was discharged at Indianapolis.

The One Hundred and Fifty-third Regiment was organized at Indianapolis on the 1st of March, 1865, under Col. O. H. P. Carey. It reported at Louisville, and by order of Gen. Palmer, was held on service in Kentucky, where it was occupied in the exciting but very dangerous pastime of fighting Southern guerrillas. Later it was posted at Louisville, until mustered out on the 4th of September, 1865.

The One Hundred and Fifty-fourth Regiment, organized under Col. Frank Wilcox, left Indianapolis under Major Simpson, for Parkersburg, W. Virginia, on the 28th of April, 1865. It was assigned to guard and garrison duty until its discharge on the 4th of August, 1865.

The One Hundred and Fifty-fifth Regiment, recruited throughout the State, left on the 26th of April for Washington, and was afterward assigned to a provisional Brigade of the

Ninth Army Corps at Alexandria. The companies of this regiment were scattered over the country,—at Dover, Centreville, Wilmington, and Salisbury, but becoming reunited on the 4th of August, 1865, it was mustered out at Dover, Delaware.

The One Hundred and Fifty-sixth Battalion, under Lieut.-Colonel Charles M. Smith, left *en route* to the Shenandoah Valley on the 27th of April, 1865, where it continued doing guard duty to the period of its muster out the 4th of August, 1865, at Winchester, Virginia.

On the return of these regiments to Indianapolis, Gov. Morton and the people received them with all that characteristic cordiality and enthusiasm peculiarly their own.

INDEPENDENT CAVALRY COMPANY OF INDIANA • VOLUNTEERS.

The people of Crawford county, animated with that inspiring patriotism which the war drew forth, organized this mounted company on the 25th of July, 1863, and placed it at the disposal of the Government, and it was mustered into service by order of the War Secretary, on the 13th of August, 1863, under Captain L. Lamb. To the close of the year it engaged in the laudable pursuit of arresting deserters and enforcing the draft; however, on the 18th of January, 1864, it was reconstituted and incorporated with the Thirteenth Cavalry, with which it continued to serve until the treason of Americans against America was conquered.

OUR COLORED TROOPS.

The Twenty-eighth Regiment of Colored Troops was recruited throughout the State of Indiana, and under Lieut.-Colonel Charles S. Russell, left Indianapolis for the front on the 24th of April, 1864. The regiment acted very well in its first engagement with the rebels at White House, Virginia, and again with Gen. Sheridan's Cavalry, in the swamps of the Chickahominy. In the battle of the "Crater," it lost half its roster; but their place was soon filled by other colored recruits from the State, and Russell promoted to the Colonelcy, and afterward to Brevet Brigadier-General, when he was succeeded in the command by Major Thomas H. Logan. During the few months of its active service it accumulated quite a history, and was ultimately discharged, on the 8th of January, 1866, at Indianapolis.

BATTERIES OF LIGHT ARTILLERY.

First Battery, organized at Evansville, under Captain Martin Klauss, and mustered in on the 16th of August, 1861, joined Gen. Fremont's army immediately, and entering readily upon its salutary course, aided in the capture of 950 rebels and their position at Blackwater creek. On March the 6th, 1862, at Elkhorn Tavern, and on the 8th at Pea Ridge, the battery performed good service. Port Gibson, Champion Hill, Jackson, the Teche country, Sabine Cross Roads, Grand Encore, all tell of its efficacy. In 1864 it was subjected to reorganization when Lawrence Jacoby was raised to the Captaincy, *vice* Klauss resigned. After a long term of useful service, it was mustered out at Indianapolis on the 18th of August, 1865.

Second Battery was organized, under Captain D. G. Rabb, at Indianapolis on the 9th of August, 1861, and one month later proceeded to the front. It participated in the campaign against Col. Coffee's irregular troops and the rebellious Indians of the Cherokee nation. From Lone Jack, Missouri, to Jenkin's Ferry and Fort Smith it won signal honors until its reorganization in 1864, and even after, to June, 1865, it maintained a very fair reputation.

The Third Battery, under Capt. W. W. Frybarger, was organized and mustered in at Connersville on the 24th of August, 1861, and proceeded immediately to join Fremont's Army of the Missouri. Moon's Mill, Kirksville, Meridian, Fort de Russy, Alexandria, Round Lake, Tupelo, Clinton and Tallahatchie are names which may be engraven on its guns. It participated in the affairs before Nashville on the 15th and 16th of December, 1864, when General Hood's Army was put to rout, and at Fort Blakely, outside Mobile, after which it returned home to report for discharge, August 21, 1865.

The Fourth Battery recruited in La Porte, Porter and Lake counties, reported at the front early in October, 1861, and at once assumed a prominent place in the army of Gen. Buell. Again under Rosencrans and McCook and under General Sheridan at Stone River, the services of this battery were much praised, and it retained its well-earned reputation to the very day of its muster out — the 1st of August, 1865. Its first organization was completed under Capt. A. K. Bush, and reorganized in October, 1864, under Capt. B. F. Johnson.

The Fifth Battery was furnished by La Porte, Allen, Whitley and Noble counties, organized under Capt. Peter Simonson, and mustered into service on the 22d of November, 1861. It comprised four six pounders, two being rifled cannon, and two

twelve-pounder Howitzers with a force of 158 men. Reporting at Camp Gilbert, Louisville, on the 29th, it was shortly after assigned to the division of Gen. Mitchell, at Bacon Creek. During its term, it served in twenty battles and numerous petty actions, losing its Captain at Pine Mountain. The total loss accruing to the battery was 84 men and officers and four guns. It was mustered out on the 20th of July, 1864.

The Sixth Battery was recruited at Evansville, under Captain Frederick Behr, and left, on the 2d of Oct., 1861, for the front, reporting at Henderson, Kentucky, a few days after. Early in 1862 it joined Gen. Sherman's army at Paducah, and participated in the battle of Shiloh, on the 6th of April. Its history grew in brilliancy until the era of peace insured a cessation of its great labors.

The Seventh Battery comprised volunteers from Terre Haute, Arcadia, Evansville, Salem, Lawrenceburg, Columbus, Vincennes and Indianapolis under Samuel J. Harris as its first Captain, who was succeeded by G. R. Shallow and O. H. Morgan after its re-organization. From the siege of Corinth to the capture of Atlanta it performed vast services, and returned to Indianapolis on the 11th of July, 1865, to be received by the people and hear its history from the lips of the veteran patriot and Governor of the State.

The Eighth Battery, under Captain G. T. Cochran, arrived at the front on the 26th of February, 1862, and subsequently entered upon its real duties at the siege of Corinth. It served with distinction throughout, and concluded a well-made campaign under Will Stokes, who was appointed Captain of the companies with which it was consolidated in March, 1865.

The Ninth Battery. The organization of this battery was perfected at Indianapolis, on the 1st of January, 1862, under Capt. N. S. Thompson. Moving to the front it participated in the affairs of Shiloh, Corinth, Queen's Hill, Meridian, Fort Dick Taylor, Fort de Russy, Henderson's Hill, Pleasant Hill, Grille Landing, Bayou Rapids, Mansura, Chicot, and many others, winning a name in each engagement. The explosion of the steamer Eclipse at Johnsonville, above Paducah, on Jan. 27, 1865, resulted in the destruction of 58 men, leaving only ten to represent the battery. The survivors reached Indianapolis on the 6th of March, and were mustered out.

The Tenth Battery was recruited at Lafayette, and mustered in under Capt. Jerome B. Cox, in January, 1861. Having passed through the Kentucky campaign against Gen. Bragg, it participated in many of the great engagements, and finally returned to report for discharge on the 6th of July, 1864, having, in the meantime, won a very fair fame.

The Eleventh Battery was organized at Lafayette, and mustered in at Indianapolis under Capt. Arnold Sutermeister, on the 17th of December, 1861. On most of the principal battle fields, from Shiloh, in 1862, to the capture of Atlanta, it maintained a high reputation for military excellence, and after consolidation with the Eighteenth, mustered out on the 7th of June, 1865.

The Twelfth Battery was recruited at Jeffersonville and subsequently mustered in at Indianapolis. On the 6th of March, 1862, it reached Nashville, having been previously assigned to Buell's Army. In April its Captain, G. W. Sterling, resigned, and the position devolved on Capt. James E. White, who, in turn, was succeeded by James A. Dunwoody. The record of the battery holds a first place in the history of the period, and enabled both men and officers to look back with pride upon the battle-fields of the land. It was ordered home in June, 1865, and on reaching Indianapolis, on the 1st of July, was mustered out on the 7th of that month.

The Thirteenth Battery was organized under Captain Sewell Coulson, during the winter of 1861, at Indianapolis, and proceeded to the front in February, 1862. During the subsequent months it was occupied in the pursuit of John H. Morgan's raiders, and aided effectively in driving them from Kentucky. This artillery company returned from the South on the 4th of July, 1865, and were discharged the day following.

The Fourteenth Battery, recruited in Wabash, Miami, Lafayette, and Huntington counties, under Captain M. H. Kidd, and Lieutenant J. W. H. McGuire, left Indianapolis on the 11th of April, 1862, and within a few months one portion of it was captured at Lexington by Gen. Forrest's great cavalry command. The main battery lost two guns and two men at Guntown, on the Mississippi, but proved more successful at Nashville and Mobile. It arrived home on the 29th of August, 1865, received a public welcome, and its final discharge.

The Fifteenth Battery, under Captain I. C. H. Von Schlin, was retained on duty from the date of its organization, at Indianapolis, until the 5th of July, 1862, when it was moved to Harper's Ferry. Two months later the gallant defense of Maryland Heights was set at naught by the rebel Stonewall Jackson, and the entire garrison surrendered. Being paroled, it was reorganized at Indianapolis, and appeared again in the field in March, 1863, where it won a splendid renown on every well-fought field to the close of the war. It was mustered out on the 24th of June, 1865.

The Sixteenth Battery was organized at Lafayette, under

Capt. Charles A. Naylor, and on the 1st of June, 1862, left for Washington. Moving to the front with Gen. Pope's command, it participated in the battle of Slaughter Mountain, on the 9th of August, and South Mountain, and Antietam, under Gen. McClellan. This battery was engaged in a large number of general engagements and flying column affairs, won a very favorable record, and returned on the 5th of July, 1865.

The Seventeenth Battery, under Capt. Milton L. Miner, was mustered in at Indianapolis, on the 20th of May, 1862, left for the front on the 5th of July, and subsequently engaged in the Gettysburg expedition, was present at Harper's Ferry, July 6, 1863, and at Opequan on the 19th of September. Fisher's Hill, New Market, and Cedar Creek brought it additional honors, and won from Gen. Sheridan a tribute of praise for its service on these battle grounds. Ordered from Winchester to Indianapolis it was mustered out there on the 3d of July, 1865.

The Eighteenth Battery, under Capt. Eli Lilly, left for the front in August, 1862, but did not take a leading part in the campaign until 1863, when, under Gen. Rosencrans, it appeared prominently at Hoover's Gap. From this period to the affairs of West Point and Macon, it performed first-class service, and returned to its State on the 25th of June, 1865.

The Nineteenth Battery was mustered into service at Indianapolis, on the 5th of August, 1862, under Capt. S. J. Harris, and proceeded immediately afterward to the front, where it participated in the campaign against Gen. Bragg. It was present at every post of danger to the end of the war, when, after the surrender of Johnson's army, it returned to Indianapolis. Reaching that city on the 6th of June, 1865, it was treated to a public reception and received the congratulations of Gov. Morton. Four days later it was discharged.

The Twentieth Battery, organized under Capt. Frank A. Rose, left the State capital on the 17th of December, 1862, for the front, and reported immediately at Henderson, Kentucky. Subsequently Captain Rose resigned, and, in 1863, under Capt. Osborn, turned over its guns to the 11th Indiana Battery, and was assigned to the charge of siege guns at Nashville. Gov. Morton had the battery supplied with new field pieces, and by the 5th of October, 1863, it was again in the field, where it won many honors under Sherman, and continued to exercise a great influence until its return on the 23d of June, 1865.

The Twenty-first Battery recruited at Indianapolis, under the direction of Captain W. W. Andrew, left on the 9th of September, 1862, for Covington, Kentucky, to aid in its defense against the advancing forces of Gen. Kirby Smith. It was en-

gaged in numerous military affairs and may be said to acquire many honors, although its record is stained with the names of seven deserters. The battery was discharged on the 21st of June, 1865.

The Twenty-second Battery was mustered in at Indianapolis on the 15th of December, 1862, under Capt. B. F. Denning, and moved at once to the front. It took a very conspicuous part in the pursuit of Morgan's Cavalry, and in many other affairs. It threw the first shot into Atlanta, and lost its Captain, who was killed in the skirmish line, on the 1st of July. While the list of casualties numbers only 35, that of desertions numbers 37. This battery was received with public honors on its return, the 25th of June, 1865, and mustered out on the 7th of the same month.

The Twenty-third Battery, recruited in October, 1862, and mustered in on the 8th of November, under Capt. I. H. Myers, proceeded south, after having rendered very efficient services at home in guarding the camps of rebel prisoners. In July, 1865, the battery took an active part, under General Boyle's command, in routing and capturing the raiders at Brandenburg, and subsequently to the close of the war performed very brilliant exploits, reaching Indianapolis in June, 1865. It was discharged on the 27th of that month.

The Twenty-fourth Battery, under Capt. I. A. Simms, was enrolled for service on the 29th of November, 1862; remained at Indianapolis on duty until the 13th of March, 1863, when it left for the field. From its participation in the Cumberland River campaign, to its last engagement at Columbia, Tennessee, it aided materially in bringing victory to the Union ranks and made for itself a widespread fame. Arriving at Indianapolis on the 28th of July, it was publicly received, and five days later disembodied.

The Twenty-fifth Battery was recruited in September and October, 1864, and mustered into service for one year, under Capt. Frederick C. Sturm. December 13th, it reported at Nashville, and took a prominent part in the defeat of Gen. Hood's army. Its duties until July, 1865, were continuous, when it returned to report for final discharge.

The Twenty-sixth Battery, or "Wilder's Battery," was recruited under Capt. I. T. Wilder, of Greensburg, in May, 1861; but was not mustered in as an artillery company. Incorporating itself with a regiment then forming at Indianapolis it was mustered as company "A," of the 17th Infantry, with Wilder as Lieutenant-Colonel of the regiment. Subsequently, at Elk Water, Virginia, it was converted into the "First Independent

Battery," and became known as "Rigby's Battery." The Record of this battery is as brilliant as any won during the war. On every field it has won a distinct reputation; it was well worthy the enthusiastic reception given to it on its return to Indianapolis on the 11th and 12th of July, 1865. During its term of service it was subject to many transmutations; but in every phase of its brief history, a reputation for gallantry and patriotism was maintained which now forms a living testimonial to its services to the public.

The total number of battles in the "War of the Rebellion" in which the patriotic citizens of the great and noble State of Indiana were more or less engaged, was as follows:

Locality.	No. of Battles.	Locality.	No. of Battles.
Virginia.....	90	Maryland.....	7
Tennessee.....	51	Texas.....	3
Georgia.....	41	South Carolina.....	2
Mississippi.....	24	Indian Territory.....	2
Arkansas.....	19	Pennsylvania.....	1
Kentucky.....	16	Ohio.....	1
Louisiana.....	15	Indiana.....	1
Missouri.....	9		
North Carolina.....	8	Total.....	308

The regiments sent forth to the defense of the Republic in the hour of its greatest peril, when a host of her own sons, blinded by some unholy infatuation, leaped to arms that they might trample upon the liberty-giving principles of the nation have been passed in very brief review. The authorities chosen for the dates, names, and figures are the records of the State and the main subject is based upon the actions of those 267,000 gallant men of Indiana who rushed to arms in defense of all for which their fathers bled, leaving their wives and children and homes in the guardianship of a truly paternal Government.

The relation of Indiana to the Republic was then established: for when the population of the State, at the time her sons went forth to participate in war for the maintenance of the Union, is brought into comparison with all other States and countries, it will be apparent that the sacrifices made by Indiana from 1861-'65 equal, if not actually exceed, the noblest of those recorded in the history of ancient or modern times.

Unprepared for the terrible inundation of modern wickedness, which threatened to deluge the country in a sea of blood and rob a people of their richest, their most prized inheritance, the State rose above all precedent, and under the benign influence of patriotism, guided by the well-directed zeal of a wise Governor and Government, sent into the field an army that in

numbers was gigantic, and in moral and physical excellence never equaled.

It is laid down in the official reports, furnished to the War Department, that over 200,000 troops were specially organized to aid in crushing the legions of the slave-holder; that no less than 50,000 militia were armed to defend the State, and that the large, but absolutely necessary number of commissions issued was 17,114. All this proves the scientific skill and military economy exercised by the Governor, and brought to the aid of the people in a most terrible emergency; for he, with some prophetic sense of the gravity of the situation, saw that unless the greatest powers of the Union were put forth to crush the least justifiable and most pernicious of all rebellions holding a place in the record of nations, the best blood of the country would flow in a vain attempt to avert a catastrophe which, if prolonged for many years, would result in at least the moral and commercial ruin of the country.

The part which Indiana took in the war against the Rebellion is one of which the citizens of the State may well be proud. In the number of troops furnished, and in the amount of voluntary contributions rendered, Indiana, in proportion and wealth, stands equal to any of her sister States. "It is also a subject of gratitude and thankfulness," said Gov. Morton, in his message to the Legislature, "that, while the number of troops furnished by Indiana alone in this great contest would have done credit to a first-class nation, measured by the standard of previous wars, not a single battery or battalion from this State has brought reproach upon the national flag, and no disaster of the war can be traced to any want of fidelity, courage or efficiency on the part of any Indiana officer. The endurance, heroism, intelligence and skill of the officers and soldiers sent forth by Indiana to do battle for the Union, have shed a luster on our beloved State, of which any people might justly be proud. Without claiming superiority over our loyal sister States, it is but justice to the brave men who have represented us on almost every battle-field of the war, to say that their deeds have placed Indiana in the front rank of those heroic States which rushed to the rescue of the imperiled Government of the nation. The total number of troops furnished by the State for all terms of service exceeds 200,000 men, much the greater portion of them being for three years; and in addition thereto not less than 50,000 State militia have from time to time been called into active service to repel raids and defend our southern border from invasion."

AFTER THE WAR.

In 1867 the Legislature comprised 91 Republicans and 59 Democrats. Soon after the commencement of the session, Gov. Morton resigned his office in consequence of having been elected to the U. S. Senate, and Lieut. Gov. Conrad Baker assumed the Executive chair during the remainder of Morton's term. This Legislature, by a very decisive vote, ratified the 14th amendment to the Federal Constitution, constituting all persons born in the country or subject to its jurisdiction, citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside, without regard to race or color; reducing the Congressional representation in any State in which there should be a restriction of the exercise of the elective franchise on account of race or color; disfranchising persons therein named who shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the United States; and declaring that the validity of the public debt of the United States authorized by law, shall not be questioned.

This Legislature also passed an act providing for the registry of votes, the punishment of fraudulent practices at elections, and for the apportionment and compensation of a Board of Registration; this Board to consist, in each township, of two freeholders appointed by the County Commissioners, together with the trustee of such township; in cities the freeholders are to be appointed in each ward by the city council. The measures of this law are very strict, and are faithfully executed. No cries of fraud in elections are heard in connection with Indiana.

This Legislature also divided the State into eleven Congressional Districts and apportioned their representation; enacted a law for the protection and indemnity of all officers and soldiers of the United States and soldiers of the Indiana Legion, for acts done in the military service of the United States, and in the military service of the State, and in enforcing the laws and preserving the peace of the country; made definite appropriations to the several benevolent institutions of the State, and adopted several measures for the encouragement of education, etc.

In 1868, Indiana was the first in the field of national politics, both the principal parties holding State conventions early in the year. The Democrats nominated T. A. Hendricks for Governor, and denounced in their platform the reconstruction policy of the Republicans; recommended that United States treasury notes be substituted for national bank currency; denied that the General Government had a right to interfere with

the question of suffrage in any of the States, and opposed negro suffrage, etc.; while the Republicans nominated Conrad Baker for Governor, defended its reconstruction policy, opposed a further contraction of the currency, etc. The campaign was an exciting one, and Mr. Baker was elected Governor by a majority of only 961. In the Presidential election that soon followed the State gave Grant 9,572 more than Seymour.

During 1868 Indiana presented claims to the Government for about three and a half millions dollars for expenses incurred in the war, and \$1,958,917.94 was allowed. Also, this year, a legislative commission reported that \$413,599.48 were allowed to parties suffering loss by the Morgan raid.

This year Governor Baker obtained a site for the House of Refuge. (See a subsequent page.) The Soldiers' and Seamen's Home, near Knightstown, originally established by private enterprise and benevolence, and adopted by the Legislature of the previous year, was in a good condition. Up to that date the institution had afforded relief and temporary subsistence to 400 men who had been disabled in the war. A substantial brick building had been built for the home, while the old buildings were used for an orphans' department, in which were gathered 86 children of deceased soldiers.

FINANCIAL.

Were it not for political government the pioneers would have got along without money much longer than they did. The pressure of governmental needs was somewhat in advance of the monetary income of the first settlers, and the little taxation required to carry on the government seemed great and even oppressive, especially at certain periods.

In November, 1821, Gov. Jennings convened the Legislature in extra session to provide for the payment of interest on the State debt and a part of the principal, amounting to \$20,000. It was thought that a sufficient amount would be realized in the notes of the State bank and its branches, although they were considerably depreciated. Said the Governor: "It will be oppressive if the State, after the paper of this institution (State bank) was authorized to be circulated in revenue, should be prevented by any assignment of the evidences of existing debt, from discharging at least so much of that debt with the paper of the bank as will absorb the collections of the present year; especially when their notes, after being made receivable by the agents of the State, became greatly depreciated by great mismanagement on the part of the bank itself. It ought not to be expected that a public loss to the State should be avoided by resorting to any measures which would not comport with correct views of public justice; nor should it be anticipated that the treasury of the United States would ultimately adopt measures to secure an uncertain debt which would interfere with arrangements calculated to adjust the demand against the State without producing any additional embarrassment."

The state of the public debt was indeed embarrassing, as the bonds which had been executed in its behalf had been assigned. The exciting cause of this proceeding consisted in the machinations of unprincipled speculators. Whatever disposition the principal bank may have made of the funds deposited by the United States, the connection of interest between the steam-mill company and the bank, and the extraordinary accommodations, as well as their amount, effected by arrangements of the steam-mill agency and some of the officers of the bank, were among the principal causes which had prostrated

the paper circulating medium of the State, so far as it was dependent on the State bank and its branches. An abnormal state of affairs like this very naturally produced a blind disbursement of the fund to some extent, and this disbursement would be called by almost every one an "unwise administration."

During the first 16 years of this century, the belligerent condition of Europe called for agricultural supplies from America, and the consequent high price of grain justified even the remote pioneers of Indiana in undertaking the tedious transportation of the products of the soil which the times forced upon them. The large disbursements made by the general Government among the people naturally engendered a rage for speculation; numerous banks with fictitious capital were established; immense issues of paper were made; and the circulating medium of the country was increased fourfold in the course of two or three years. This inflation produced the consequences which always follow such a scheme, namely, unfounded vision of wealth and splendor and the wild investments which result in ruin to the many and wealth to the few. The year 1821 was consequently one of great financial panic, and was the first experienced by the early settlers of the West.

In 1822 the new Governor, William Hendricks, took a hopeful view of the situation, referring particularly to the "agricultural and social happiness of the State." The crops were abundant this year, immigration was setting in heavily and everything seemed to have an upward look. But the customs of the white race still compelling them to patronize European industries, combined with the remoteness of the surplus produce of Indiana from European markets, constituted a serious drawback to the accumulation of wealth. Such a state of things naturally changed the habits of the people to some extent, at least for a short time, assimilating them to those of more primitive tribes. This change of custom, however, was not severe and protracted enough to change the intelligent and social nature of the people, and they arose to their normal height on the very first opportunity.

In 1822-3, before speculation started up again, the surplus money was invested mainly in domestic manufactories instead of other and wilder commercial enterprises. Home manufactories were what the people needed to make them more independent. They not only gave employment to thousands whose services were before that valueless, but also created a market for a great portion of the surplus produce of the farmers. A part of the surplus capital, however, was also sunk in internal

improvements, some of which were unsuccessful for a time, but eventually proved remunerative.

Noah Noble occupied the Executive chair of the State from 1831 to 1837, commencing his duties amid peculiar embarrassments. The crops of 1832 were short, Asiatic cholera came sweeping along the Ohio and into the interior of the State, and the Black Hawk war raged in the Northwest,—all these at once, and yet the work of internal improvements was actually begun.

STATE BANK.

The State bank of Indiana was established by law January 28, 1834. The act of the Legislature, by its own terms, ceased to be a law, January 1, 1857. At the time of its organization in 1834, its outstanding circulation was \$4,208,725, with a debt due to the institution, principally from citizens of the State, of \$6,095,368. During the years 1857-58 the bank redeemed nearly its entire circulation, providing for the redemption of all outstanding obligations; at this time it had collected from most of its debtors the money which they owed. The amounts of the State's interest in the stock of the bank was \$1,399,000, and the money thus invested was procured by the issue of five per cent. bonds, the last of which was payable July 1, 1895. The nominal profits of the bank were \$2,789,604.36. By the law creating the sinking fund, that fund was appropriated, first, to pay the principal and interest on the bonds; secondly, the expenses of the Commissioners; and lastly the cause of common-school education.

The stock in all the branches authorized was subscribed by individuals, and the installment paid as required by the charter. The loan authorized for the payment on the stock allotted to the State, amounting to \$500,000, was obtained at a premium of 1.05 per cent. on five per cent. stock, making the sum of over \$5,000 on the amount borrowed. In 1836 we find that the State bank was doing good service; agricultural products were abundant, and the market was good; consequently the people were in the full enjoyment of all the blessings of a free government.

By the year 1843 the State was experiencing the disasters and embarrassment consequent upon a system of over-banking, and its natural progeny, over-trading and deceptive speculation. Such a state of things tends to relax the hand of industry by creating false notions of wealth, and tempt to sudden acquisitions by means as delusive in their results as they are

contrary to a primary law of nature. The people began more than ever to see the necessity of falling back upon that branch of industry for which Indiana, especially at that time, was particularly fitted, namely, agriculture, as the true and lasting source of substantial wealth.

Gov. Whitcomb, 1843-49, succeeded well in maintaining the credit of the State. Measures of compromise between the State and its creditors were adopted by which, ultimately, the public works, although incomplete, were given in payment for the claims against the government.

At the close of his term, Gov. Whitcomb was elected to the Senate of the United States, and from December, 1848, to December, 1849, Lieut.-Gov. Paris C. Dunning was acting Governor.

In 1851 a general banking law was adopted which gave a new impetus to the commerce of the State, and opened the way for a broader volume of general trade; but this law was the source of many abuses; currency was expanded, a delusive idea of wealth again prevailed, and as a consequence, a great deal of damaging speculation was indulged in.

In 1857 the charter of the State bank expired, and the large gains to the State in that institution were directed to the promotion of common-school education.

In November, 1895, ninety-seven State banks were operating under the law and no failures are reported during the fiscal year of 1894 to 1895. The capital invested amounts to \$15,681,343 against \$14,212,269 in the previous year.

In conclusion it is well worth noticing that three Trust Companies with a capital stock of \$2,116,849 and 502 Building and Loan Associations with a total membership of 142,093, an authorized capital stock of \$387,095,000 and an amount of capital stock subscribed and in force of \$93,919,284, are now doing business throughout the State.

WEALTH AND PROGRESS.

During the war of the Rebellion the financial condition of the people was like that of the other Northern States generally. The year 1870 found the State in a prosperous condition. October 31st of this year, the date of the fiscal report, there was a surplus of \$373,249 in the treasury; the receipts of the year amounted to \$3,605,639, and the disbursements to \$2,943,600, leaving a balance of \$1,035,283, while in November, 1895, a surplus of only \$390,511 being on hand, \$8,525,219 were received and \$8,342,004 expended by the treasurer, leaving a balance of

\$573,726 at the above mentioned date. The total debt of the State, which in November, 1871, amounted to \$3,937,821, has increased to \$7,520,615 in 1895.

Taking into consideration the vast extent of railroad lines in this State, in connection with the agricultural and mineral resources, both developed and undeveloped, we can understand what a substantial foundation exists for the future welfare of this great commonwealth.

The agricultural community is in a sound and prosperous condition and in manufacturing enterprises Indiana is said to be in advance of Illinois and Michigan in proportion to her population.

The assessed valuation of real and personal property in 1850 of \$138,362,085 increased to \$1,295,106,415 in 1894 and \$1,282,753,418 in 1895. The total taxation in 1894 amounted to \$18,891,581, and including the delinquencies, to \$22,008,331.

We deem it improper to burden these pages with tables or columns of large numbers, and we conclude by remarking that if any one wishes further details in these matters, he can readily find them in the Census Reports of the Government, which can easily be obtained in any city or village or directly from your representative in Congress.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

This subject began to be agitated as early as 1818, during the administration of Governor Jennings, who, as well as all the Governors succeeding him to 1843, made it a special point in their messages to the Legislature to urge the adoption of measures for the construction of highways and canals and the improvement of the navigation of rivers. Gov. Hendricks in 1822 specified as the most important improvement the navigation of the Falls of the Ohio, the Wabash and White rivers, and other streams, and the construction of the National and other roads through the State.

In 1826 Governor Ray considered the construction of roads and canals as a necessity to place the State on an equal financial footing with the older States East, and in 1829 he added: "This subject can never grow irksome, since it must be the source of the blessings of civilized life. To secure its benefits is a duty enjoined upon the Legislature by the obligations of the social compact."

In 1830 the people became much excited over the project of connecting the streams of the country by "The National New York & Mississippi railroad." The National road and the

Michigan and Ohio turnpike were enterprises in which the people and Legislature of Indiana were interested. The latter had already been the cause of much bitter controversy, and its location was then the subject of contention.

In 1832 the work of internal improvements fairly commenced, despite the partial failure of the crops, the Black Hawk war and the Asiatic cholera. Several war parties invaded the Western settlements, exciting great alarm and some suffering. This year the canal commissioners completed the task assigned them and had negotiated the canal bonds in New York city, to the amount of \$100,000, at a premium of $13\frac{1}{4}$ per cent., on terms honorable to the State and advantageous to the work. Before the close of this year \$54,000 were spent for the improvement of the Michigan road, and \$52,000 were realized from the sale of lands appropriated for its construction. In 1832-32 miles of the Wabash and Erie canal was placed under contract and work commenced. A communication was addressed to the Governor of Ohio, requesting him to call the attention of the Legislature of that State to the subject of the extension of the canal from the Indiana line through Ohio to the Lake. In compliance with this request, Governor Lucas promptly laid the subject before the Legislature of the State, and, in a spirit of courtesy, resolutions were adopted by that body, stipulating that if Ohio should ultimately decline to undertake the completion of that portion of the work within her limits before the time fixed by the act of Congress for the completion of the canal, she would, on just and equitable terms, enable Indiana to avail herself of the benefit of the lands granted, by authorizing her to sell them and invest the proceeds in the stock of a company to be incorporated by Ohio; and that she would give Indiana notice of her final determination on or before January 1, 1838. The Legislature of Ohio also authorized and invited the agent of the State of Indiana to select, survey and set apart the lands lying within that State. In keeping with this policy Governor Noble, in 1834, said: "With a view of engaging in works of internal improvement, the propriety of adopting a general plan or system, having reference to the several portions of the State, and the connection of one with the other, naturally suggests itself. No work should be commenced but such as would be of acknowledged public utility, and when completed would form a branch of some general system. In view of this object, the policy of organizing a Board of Public Works is again respectfully suggested." The Governor also called favorable attention to the Lawrenceburg & Indianapolis railway, for which a charter had been granted.

In 1835 the Wabash & Erie canal was pushed rapidly forward. The middle division, extending from the St. Joseph dam to the forks of the Wabash, about 32 miles, was completed, for about \$232,000, including all repairs. Upon this portion of the line navigation was opened on July 4, which day the citizens assembled "to witness the mingling of the waters of the St. Joseph with those of the Wabash, uniting the waters of the northern chain of lakes with those of the Gulf of Mexico in the South." On other parts of the line the work progressed with speed, and the sale of canal lands was unusually active.

In 1836 the first meeting of the State Board of Internal Improvement was convened and entered upon the discharge of its numerous and responsible duties. Having assigned to each member the direction and superintendence of a portion of the work, the next duty to be performed preparatory to the various spheres of active service, was that of procuring the requisite number of engineers. A delegation was sent to the Eastern cities, but returned without engaging an Engineer-in-Chief for the roads and railways, and without the desired number for the subordinate station; but after considerable delay the Board was fully organized and put in operation. Under their management work on public improvements was successful; the canal progressed steadily; the navigation of the middle division, from Fort Wayne to Huntington, was uninterrupted; 16 miles of the line between Huntington and La Fontaine creek were filled with water this year and made ready for navigation; and the remaining 20 miles were completed, except a portion of the locks; from La Fontaine creek to Logansport progress was made; the line from Georgetown to Lafayette was placed under contract; about 30 miles of the Whitewater canal, extending from Lawrenceburg through the beautiful valley of the Whitewater to Brookville, were also placed under contract, as also 23 miles of the Central canal, passing through Indianapolis, on which work was commenced; also about 20 miles of the southern division of this work, extending from Evansville into the interior, were also contracted for; and on the line of the Cross-Cut canal, from Terre Haute to the intersection of the Central canal, near the mouth of the Eel river, a commencement was also made on all the heavy sections. All this in 1836.

Early in this year a party of engineers was organized, and directed to examine into the practicability of the Michigan & Erie canal line, then proposed. The report of their operations favored its expediency. A party of engineers was also fitted out, who entered upon the field of service of the Madison & Lafayette railroad, and contracts were let for its construction

from Madison to Vernon, on which work was vigorously commenced. Also, contracts were let for grading and bridging the New Albany & Vincennes road from the former point to Paoli, about 40 miles. Other roads were also undertaken and surveyed, so that indeed a stupendous system of internal improvement was undertaken, and as Gov. Noble truly remarked, upon the issue of that vast enterprise the State of Indiana staked her fortune. She had gone too far to retreat.

In 1837, when Gov. Wallace took the Executive chair, the reaction consequent upon "over-work" by the State in the internal improvement scheme began to be felt by the people. They feared a State debt was being incurred from which they could never be extricated; but the Governor did all he could throughout the term of his administration to keep up the courage of the citizens. He told them that the astonishing success so far, surpassed even the hopes of the most sanguine, and that the flattering auspices of the future were sufficient to dispel every doubt and quiet every fear. Notwithstanding all his efforts, however, the construction of public works continued to decline, and in his last message he exclaimed: "Never before—I speak it advisedly—never before have you witnessed a period in our local history that more urgently called for the exercise of all the soundest and best attributes of grave and patriotic legislators than the present. * * * The truth is—and it would be folly to conceal it—we have our hands full—full to overflowing; and therefore, to sustain ourselves, to preserve the credit and character of the State unimpaired, and to continue her hitherto unexampled march to wealth and distinction, we have not an hour of time, nor a dollar of money, nor a hand employed in labor, to squander and dissipate upon mere objects of idleness, or taste, or amusement."

The State had borrowed \$3,827,000 for internal improvement purposes, of which \$1,327,000 was for the Wabash & Erie canal and the remainder for other works. The five per cent. interest on debts—about \$200,000—which the State had to pay, had become burdensome, as her resources for this purpose were only two, besides direct taxation, and they were small, namely, the interest on the balances due for canal lands, and the proceeds of the third installment of the surplus revenue, both amounting, in 1838, to about \$45,000.

In August, 1839, all work ceased on these improvements, with one or two exceptions, and most of the contracts were surrendered to the State. This was done according to an act of the Legislature providing for the compensation of contractors by the issue of treasury notes. In addition to this state of af-

fairs, the Legislature of 1839 had made no provision for the payment of interest on the State debt incurred for internal improvements. Concerning this situation Gov. Bigger, in 1840, said that either to go ahead with the works or to abandon them altogether would be equally ruinous to the State, the implication being that the people should wait a little while for a breathing spell and then take hold again.

Of course much individual indebtedness was created during the progress of the work on internal improvement. When operations ceased in 1839, and prices fell at the same time, the people were left in a great measure without the means of commanding money to pay their debts. This condition of private enterprise more than ever rendered direct taxation imperative. Hence it became the policy of Gov. Bigger to provide the means of paying the interest on the State debt without increasing the rate of taxation, and to continue that portion of the public works that could be immediately completed, and from which the earliest returns could be expected.

In 1840 the system embraced ten different works, the most important of which was the Wabash & Erie canal. The aggregate length of the lines embraced in the system was 1,160 miles, and of this only 140 miles had been completed. The amount expended had reached the sum of \$5,600,000, and it required at least \$14,000,000 to complete them. Although the crops of 1841 were very remunerative, this perquisite alone was not sufficient to raise the State again up to the level of going ahead with her gigantic works.

We should here state in detail the amount of work completed and of money expended on the various works up to this time, 1841, which were as follows:

1. The Wabash & Erie canal, from the State line to Tippecanoe, 129 miles in length, completed and navigable for the whole length, at a cost of \$2,041,012. This sum includes the cost of the steamboat lock afterward completed at Delphi.

2. The extension of the Wabash & Erie canal from the mouth of the Tippecanoe to Terre Haute, over 104 miles. The estimated cost of this work was \$1,500,000; and the amount expended for the same \$408,855. The navigation was at this period opened as far down as Lafayette, and a part of the work done in the neighborhood of Covington.

3. The cross-cut canal from Terre Haute to Central canal, 49 miles in length; estimated cost, \$718,672; amount expended, \$420,679; and at this time no part of the course was navigable.

4. The White Water canal, from Lawrenceburg to the mouth of Nettle creek, 76 1-2 miles; estimated cost, \$4,675,738;

amount expended to that date, \$1,099,867; and 31 miles of the work was navigable, extending from the Ohio river to Brookville.

5. The Central canal, from the Wabash & Erie canal, to Indianapolis, including the feeder bend at Muncietown, 124 miles in length; total estimated cost, \$2,299,853; amount expended, \$568,046; eight miles completed at that date, and other portions nearly done.

6. Central canal, from Indianapolis to Evansville on the Ohio river, 194 miles in length; total estimated cost, \$3,532,394; amount expended, \$831,302. 19 miles of which was completed at that date, at the southern end, and 16 miles, extending south from Indianapolis, were nearly completed.

7. Erie & Michigan canal, 182 miles in length; estimated cost, \$2,624,823; amount expended, \$156,394. No part of this work finished.

8. The Madison & Indianapolis railroad, over 85 miles in length; total estimated cost, \$2,046,600; amount expended, \$1,493,013. Road finished and in operation for about 28 miles; grading nearly finished for 27 miles in addition, extending to Edenburg.

9. Indianapolis & Lafayette turnpike road, 73 miles in length; total estimated cost, \$593,737; amount expended, \$72,118. The bridging and most of the grading was done on 27 miles, from Crawfordsville to Lafayette.

10. New Albany & Vincennes turnpike road, 105 miles in length; estimated cost, \$1,127,295; amount expended, \$654,411. Forty-one miles graded and macadamized, extending from New Albany to Paoli, and 27 miles in addition partly graded.

11. Jeffersonville & Crawfordsville road, over 164 miles long; total estimated cost, \$1,651,800; amount expended, \$372,737. Forty-five miles were partly graded and bridged, extending from Jeffersonville to Salem, and from Greencastle north.

12. Improvement of the Wabash rapids, undertaken jointly by Indiana and Illinois; estimated cost to Indiana, \$102,500; amount expended by Indiana, \$9,539.

Grand totals: Length of roads and canals, 1,289 miles, only 281 of which have been finished; estimated cost of all the works, \$19,914,424; amount expended, \$8,164,528. The State debt at this time amounted to \$18,469,146. The two principal causes which aggravated the embarrassment of the State at this juncture were, first, paying most of the interest out of the money borrowed, and, secondly, selling bonds on credit. The first error subjected the State to the payment of compound

interest, and the people, not feeling the pressure of taxes to discharge the interest, naturally became inattentive to the public policy pursued. Postponement of the payment of interest is demoralizing in every way. During this period the State was held up in an unpleasant manner before the gaze of the world; but be it to the credit of this great and glorious State, she would not repudiate, as many other States and municipalities have done.

By the year 1850, the so called "internal improvement" system having been abandoned, private capital and ambition pushed forward various "public works." During this year about 400 miles of plank road were completed, at a cost of \$1,200 to \$1,500 per mile, and about 1,200 miles more were surveyed and in progress. There were in the State at this time 212 miles of railroad in successful operation, of which 124 were completed this year. More than 1,000 miles of railroad were surveyed and in progress.

An attempt was made during the session of the Legislature in 1869 to re-burden the State with the old canal debt, and the matter was considerably agitated in the canvass of 1870. The subject of the Wabash & Erie canal was lightly touched in the Republican platform, occasioning considerable discussion, which probably had some effect on the election in the fall. That election resulted in an average majority in the State of about 2,864 for the Democracy. It being claimed that the Legislature had no authority under the constitution to tax the people for the purpose of aiding in the construction of railroads, the Supreme Court, in April, 1871, decided adversely to such a claim.

GEOLOGY.

In 1869 the development of mineral resources in the State attracted considerable attention. Rich mines of iron and coal were discovered, as also fine quarries of building stone. The Vincennes railroad passed through some of the richest portions of the mineral region, the engineers of which had accurately determined the quality of richness of the ores. Near Brooklyn, about 20 miles from Indianapolis, is a fine formation of sandstone, yielding good material for buildings in the city; indeed, it is considered the best building stone in the State. The limestone formation at Gosport, continuing 12 miles from that point, is of great variety, and includes the finest and most durable building stone in the world. Portions of it are susceptible only to the chisel; other portions are soft and can be worked

with the ordinary tools. At the end of this limestone formation there commences a sandstone series of strata which extends seven miles farther, to a point about 60 miles from Indianapolis. Here an extensive coal bed is reached consisting of seven distinct veins. The first is about two feet thick, the next three feet, another four feet, and the others of various thicknesses. These beds are all easily worked, having a natural drain, and they yield heavy profits. In the whole of the southwestern part of the State and for 300 miles up the Wabash, coal exists in good quality and abundance.

The scholars, statesmen and philanthropists of Indiana worked hard and long for the appointment of a State geologist, with sufficient support to enable him to make a thorough geological survey of the State. A partial survey was made as early as 1837-'8, by David Dale Owen, State Geologist, but nothing more was done until 1869, when Prof. Edward T. Cox was appointed State Geologist. For 20 years previous to this date the Governors urged and insisted in all their messages that a thorough survey should be made, but almost if not quite, in vain. In 1852, Dr. Ryland T. Brown delivered an able address on this subject before the Legislature, showing how much coal, iron, building stone, etc., there were probably in the State, but the exact localities and qualities not ascertained, and how millions of money could be saved to the State by the expenditure of a few thousand dollars; but "they answered the Doctor in the negative. It must have been because they hadn't time to pass the bill. They were very busy. They had to pass all sorts of regulations concerning the negro. They had to protect a good many white people from marrying negroes. And as they didn't need any labor in the State, if it was colored they had to make regulations to shut out all of that kind of labor, and to take steps to put out all that unfortunately got in, and they didn't have time to consider the scheme proposed by the white people."—*W. W. Clayton*.

In 1853, the State Board of Agriculture employed Dr. Brown to make a partial examination of the geology of the State, at a salary of \$500 a year, and to this Board the credit is due for the final success of the philanthropists, who in 1869 had the pleasure of witnessing the passage of a Legislative act "to provide for a Department of Geology and Natural Science, in connection with the State Board of Agriculture." Under this act Governor Baker immediately appointed Prof. Edward T. Cox the State Geologist, who has made an able and exhaustive report of the agricultural, mineral and manufacturing resources of this State, world-wide in its celebrity, and a work of which

the people of Indiana may be very proud. We can scarcely give even the substance of his report in a work like this, because it is of necessity deeply scientific and made up entirely of local detail.

COAL.

The coal measures, says Prof. E. T. Cox, cover an area of about 6,500 square miles, in the southwestern part of the State, and extend from Warren county on the north to the Ohio river on the south, a distance of about 150 miles. This area comprises the following counties: Warren, Fountain, Parke, Vermillion, Vigo, Clay, Sullivan, Greene, Knox, Daviess, Martin, Gibson, Pike, Dubois, Vanderburg, Warrick, Spencer, Perry and a small part of Crawford, Munroe, Putnam and Montgomery.

This coal is all bituminous, but is divisible into three well-marked varieties: caking-coal, non-caking-coal or block coal and cannel coal. The total depth of the seams or measures is from 600 to 800 feet, with 12 to 14 distinct seams of coal; but these are not all to be found throughout the area; the seams range from one foot to eleven feet in thickness. The caking coal prevails in the western portion of the area described, and has from three to four workable seams, ranging from three and a half to eleven feet in thickness. At most of the places where these are worked the coal is mined by adits driven in on the face of the ridges, and the deepest shafts in the State are less than 300 feet, the average depth for successful mining not being over 75 feet. This is a bright, black, sometimes glossy, coal, makes good coke and contains a very large percentage of pure illuminating gas. One pound will yield about $4\frac{1}{2}$ cubic feet of gas, with a power equal to 15 standard sperm candles. The average calculated calorific power of the caking coals is 7,745 heat units, pure carbon being 8,080. Both in the northern and southern portions of the field, the caking coals present similar good qualities, and are a great source of private and public wealth.

The block coal prevails in the eastern part of the field and has an area of about 450 square miles. This is excellent, in its raw state, for making pig iron. It is indeed peculiarly fitted for metallurgical purposes. It has a laminated structure with carbonaceous matter, like charcoal, between the lamina, with slaty cleavage, and it rings under the stroke of the hammer. It is "free-burning," makes an open fire, and without caking, swelling, scaffolding in the furnace or changing form, burns

like hickory wood until it is consumed to a white ash and leaves no clinkers. It is likewise valuable for generating steam and for household uses. Many of the principal railway lines in the State are using it in preference to any other coal, as it does not burn out the fire-boxes, and gives as little trouble as wood.

There are eight distinct seams of block coal in this zone three of which are workable, having an average thickness of four feet. In some places this coal is mined by adits, but generally from shafts, 40 to 80 feet deep. The seams are crossed by cleavage lines, and the coal is usually mined without powder, and may be taken out in blocks weighing a ton or more. When entries or rooms are driven angling across the cleavage lines, the walls of the mine present a zigzag, notched appearance resembling a Virginia worm fence.

In 1871 there were about 24 block coal mines in operation, and about 1,500 tons were mined daily, which amount in 1896 increased to about 183 mines with a daily tonnage increasing in the same proportion and netting an annual number of 4,358,897 tons of coal of all kinds throughout the State. This coal consists of 81.1-2 to 83.1-2 per cent. of carbon, and not quite three-fourths of one per cent. of sulphur. Calculated calorific power equal to 8,283 heat units. This coal also is equally good both in the northern and southern parts of the field.

The great Indiana coal field is within 150 miles of Chicago or Michigan City, by railroad, from which ports the Lake Superior specular and red hematite ores are landed from vessels that are able to run in a direct course from the ore banks. Considering the proximity of the vast quantities of iron in Michigan and Missouri, one can readily see what a glorious future awaits Indiana in respect to manufactories.

Of the cannel coal, one of the finest seams to be found in the country is in Daviess county, this State. Here it is three and a half feet thick, underlaid by one and a half feet of a beautiful, jet-black caking coal. There is no clay, shale or other foreign matter intervening, and fragments of the caking coal are often found adhering to the cannel. There is no gradual change from one to the other, and the character of each is homogeneous throughout.

The cannel coal makes a delightful fire in open grates, and does not pop and throw off scales into the room, as is usual with this kind of coal. This coal is well adapted to the manufacture of illuminating gas, in respect to both quantity and high illuminating power. One ton of 2,000 pounds of this coal yields 10,400 feet of gas, while the best Pennsylvania coal yields but 8,680 cubic feet. This gas has an illuminating power

of 25 candles, while the best Pennsylvania coal gas has that of only 17 candles.

Cannel coal is also found in great abundance in Perry, Greene, Parke and Fountain counties, where its commercial value has already been demonstrated.

Numerous deposits of bog iron ore are found in the northern part of the State, and clay iron-stones and impure carbonates and brown oxides are found scattered in the vicinity of the coal field. In some places the beds are quite thick and of considerable commercial value.

An abundance of excellent lime is also found in Indiana, especially in Huntington county, where many large kilns are kept in profitable operation.

PETROLEUM.

Since Indiana is rapidly coming to the front as an oil producing state, a few facts at this time may be of great interest to the reader.

One can hardly conceive the vast amount of money and labor required to handle the product of Indiana's oil fields when you consider the refineries, storage tanks, pumping stations, pipelines, tank cars, cooper shops for the manufacturing of the barrels, boxes and such things necessary for the handling of this important product. The principal wells are distributed through the counties of Jay, Wells, Adams, Blackford and Grant, while other portions of the state have shown indications that oil may be found. There are about 690 producing wells in the state, the output of which was about 2,400,000 barrels at the end of the year, which is all refined in this State.

GAS.

It is but proper to state here that Indiana, since a number of years, had the largest and best natural gas fields that were ever discovered in any state of the Union. As soon as every inch of the gas territory will have been developed, there is no question but what the time eventually will come, although a long way off as yet, on account of the vast extent of the fields, when the supply will rapidly diminish. Indeed the failure has already begun, the pressure has decreased considerably and the supply began to fall short in many places, causing intense suffering during the hard winter of 1892-3, much to the surprise of some sanguine natives who labored under the mistaken idea that natural gas was to be perpetual. The legislature

undoubtedly will pass laws in the near future to prohibit the people from wasting this useful product, thereby securing an uninterrupted supply for many a year.

CLAY AND BUILDING STONES.

Careful investigation has developed the fact that among the natural resources of the State building stones and clays constitute a very prominent part. Twenty-eight different clays have been found in the western and southwestern parts of the State and no hesitation is felt to predict, that the clay-working industries within the next ten years will become the leading manufacturing industries of western Indiana. The large clay-industries already in existence in the vicinity of Brazil, Terre Haute and other places, are all of them flourishing; the demands for their products in many instances being greater than the possible supply. They have proven by practical experience that the shales and underclays of the coal measures are in every way fitted for manufacturing purposes; but it is remarkable, that the people of the State, for some unknown reason, seem reluctant to invest money in these clay industries, as well as the larger coal, stone, natural gas and oil interests.

No State in the Union possesses better stone for building purposes than Indiana. The oolitic limestone from Lawrence, Monroe and other counties has long been noted among architects for its strength and durability. In the counties of Dubois, Greene and Parke a carboniferous sandstone is found of a handsome brown color, which compares favorably in appearance with the brown sandstones of the Lake Superior region, so much used for the fronts of business blocks in Chicago, Milwaukee and other cities of the Northwest.

It is perhaps not generally known that Indiana is the second State of the Union in the production of whetstones and grindstones. The fine-grained silicious rock found in Orange and Martin counties has long been used for such purpose.

AGRICULTURAL.

In 1852 the Legislature passed an act authorizing the organization of county and district agricultural societies, and also establishing a State Board, the provisions of which act are substantially as follows:

1. Thirty or more persons in any one or two counties organizing into a society for the improvement of agriculture, adopting a constitution and by-laws agreeable to the regulations pre-

scribed by the State Board, and appointing the proper officers and raising a sum of \$50 for its own treasury, shall be entitled to the same amount from the fund arising from show licenses in their respective counties.

2. These societies shall offer annual premiums for improvement of soils, tillage, crops, manures, productions, stock, articles of domestic industry, and such other articles, productions and improvements as they may deem proper; they shall encourage, by grant of rewards, agricultural and household manufacturing interests, and so regulate the premiums that small farmers will have equal opportunity with the large; and they shall pay special attention to cost and profit of the inventions and improvements, requiring an exact, detailed statement of the processes competing for rewards.

3. They shall publish in a newspaper annually their list of awards and an abstract of their treasurers' accounts, and they shall report in full to the State Board their proceedings. Failing to do the latter they shall receive no payment from their county funds.

STATE BOARD OF AGRICULTURE.

The act of Feb. 17, 1852, also established a State Board of Agriculture, with perpetual succession; its annual meetings to be held at Indianapolis on the first Thursday after the first Monday in January, when the reports of the county societies are to be received and agricultural interests discussed and determined upon; it shall make an annual report to the Legislature of receipts, expenses, proceedings, etc., of its own meeting as well as of those of the local societies; it shall hold State fairs, at such times and places as they may deem proper; may hold two meetings a year, certifying to the State Auditor their expenses, who shall draw his warrant upon the Treasurer for the same.

In 1861 the State Board adopted certain rules, embracing ten sections, for the government of local societies, but in 1868 they were found inexpedient and abandoned. It adopted a resolution admitting delegates from the local societies.

THE EXPOSITION.

As the Board found great difficulty in doing justice to exhibitors without an adequate building, the members went earnestly to work in the fall of 1872 to get up an interest in the matter. They appointed a committee of five to confer with

the Council or citizens of Indianapolis as to the best mode to be devised for a more thorough and complete exhibition of the industries of the State. The result of the conference was that the time had arrived for a regular "exposition," like that of the older States. At the January meeting in 1873, Hon. Thomas Dowling, of Terre Haute, reported for the committee that they found a general interest in this enterprise, not only at the capital, but also throughout the State. A sub-committee was appointed who devised plans and specifications for the necessary structure, taking lessons mainly from the Kentucky Exposition building at Louisville. All the members of the State Board were in favor of proceeding with the building except Mr. Poole, who feared that, as the interest of the two enterprises were somewhat conflicting, and the Exposition being the more exciting show, it would swallow up the State and county fairs.

The Exposition was opened Sept. 10, 1873, when Hon. John Sutherland, President of the Board, the Mayor of Indianapolis, Senator Morton and Gov. Hendricks delivered addresses. Senator Morton took the high ground that the money spent for an exposition is spent as strictly for educational purposes as that which goes directly into the common school. The Exposition is not a mere show, to be idly gazed upon, but an industrial school where one should study and learn. He thought that Indiana had less untillable land than any other State in the Union; 'twas as rich as any and yielded a greater variety of products; and that Indiana was the most prosperous agricultural community in the United States. The State had nearly 3,700 miles of railroad, not counting side-track, with 400 miles more under contract for building. In 15 or 18 months one can go from Indianapolis to every county in the State by railroad. Indiana has 6,500 square miles of coal field, 450 of which contain block coal, the best in the United States for manufacturing purposes.

On the subject of cheap transportation, he said: "By the census of 1870, Pennsylvania had, of domestic animals of all kinds, 4,006,589, and Indiana, 4,511,094. Pennsylvania had grain to the amount of 60,460,000 bushels, while Indiana had 79,350,454. The value of the farm products of Pennsylvania was estimated to be \$183,946,000; those of Indiana, \$122,914,000. Thus you see that while Indiana had 505,000 head of live stock more, and 19,000,000 bushels of grain more than Pennsylvania, yet the products of Pennsylvania are estimated at \$183,946,000, on account of her greater proximity to market, while those of Indiana are estimated at only \$122,914,000

Thus you can understand the importance of cheap transportation to Indiana.

"Let us see how the question of transportation affects us on the other hand, with reference to the manufacture of Bessemer steel. Of the 174,000 tons of iron ore used in the blast furnaces of Pittsburg last year, 84,000 tons came from Lake Superior, 64,000 tons from Iron Mountain, Missouri, 20,000 tons from Lake Champlain, and less than 5,000 tons from the home mines of Pennsylvania. They cannot manufacture their iron with the coal they have in Pennsylvania without coking it. We have coal in Indiana with which we can, in its raw state, make the best of iron; while we are 250 miles nearer Lake Superior than Pittsburg, and 430 miles nearer to Iron Mountain. So that the question of transportation determines the fact that Indiana must become the great center for the manufacture of Bessemer steel."

"What we want in this country is diversified labor."

The grand hall of the Exposition buildings is on elevated ground at the head of Alabama street, and commands a fine view of the city. The structure is of brick, 308 feet long by 150 in width, and two stories high. Its elevated galleries extend quite around the building, under the roof, thus affording visitors an opportunity to secure the most commanding view to be had in the city. The lower floor of the grand hall is occupied by the mechanical, geological and miscellaneous departments, and by the offices of the Board, which extend along the entire front. The second floor, which is approached by three wide stairways, accommodates the fine art, musical and other departments of light mechanics, and is brilliantly lighted by windows and skylights. But as we are here entering the description of a subject magnificent to behold, we enter a description too vast to complete, and we may as well stop here as anywhere.

The Presidents of the State Fairs have been: Gov. J. A. Wright, 1852-4; Gen. Jos. Orr, 1855; Dr. A. C. Stevenson, 1856-8; G. D. Wagner, 1859-60; D. P. Holloway, 1861; Jas. D. Williams, 1862, 1870-1; A. D. Hamrick, 1863, 1867-9; Stearns Fisher, 1864-6; John Sutherland, 1872-4; Wm. Crim, 1875. Secretaries: John B. Dillon, 1852-3, 1855, 1858-9; Ignatius Brown, 1856-7; W. T. Dennis, 1854, 1860-1; W. H. Loomis, 1862-6; A. J. Holmes, 1867-9; Joseph Poole, 1870-1; Alex. Heron, 1872-5. Place of fair, Indianapolis every year except Lafayette, 1853; Madison, 1854; New Albany, 1859; Fort Wayne, 1865; and Terre Haute, 1867. In 1861 there was no fair. The gate and entry receipts increased from \$4,651 in 1852 to \$45,330 in 1874.

On the opening of the Exposition, Oct. 7, 1874, addresses were delivered by the President of the Board, Hon. John Sutherland, and by Govs. Hendricks, Bigler and Pollock. Yvon's celebrated painting, the "Great Republic," was unveiled with great ceremony, and many distinguished guests were present to witness it.

The exhibition of 1875 showed that the plate glass from the southern part of the State was equal to the finest French plate; that the force-blowers made in the eastern part of the State was of a world-wide reputation; that the State has within its bounds the largest wagon manufactory in the world; that in other parts of the State there were all sorts and sizes of manufactories, including rolling mills and blast furnaces, and in the western part coal was mined and shipped at the rate of 2,500 tons a day from one vicinity; and many other facts, which "would astonish the citizens of Indiana themselves even more than the rest of the world."

INDIANA HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY.

This society was organized in 1842, thus taking the lead in the West. At this time Henry Ward Beecher was a resident of Indianapolis, engaged not only as a minister but also as editor of the *Indiana Farmer and Gardener*, and his influence was very extensive in the interests of horticulture, floriculture and farming. Prominent among his pioneer co-laborers were Judge Coburn, Aaron Aldridge, Capt. James Sigarson, D. V. Culley, Reuben Ragan, Stephen Hampton, Cornelius Ratliff, Joshua Lindley, Abner Pope and many others. In the autumn of this year the society held an exhibition, probably the first in the State, if not in the West, in the hall of the new State house. The only premium offered was a set of silver teaspoons for the best seedling apple, which was won by Reuben Ragan, of Putnam county, for an apple christened on this occasion the "Osceola."

The society gave great encouragement to the introduction of new varieties of fruit, especially of the pear, as the soil and climate of Indiana were well adapted to this fruit. But the bright horizon which seemed to be at this time looming up all around the field of the young society's operations was suddenly and thoroughly darkened by the swarm of noxious insects, diseases, blasts of winter and the great distance to market. The prospects of the cause scarcely justified a continuation of the expense of assembling from remote parts of the State, and the meetings of the society therefore soon dwindled away until the organization itself became quite extinct.

But when, in 1852 and afterward, railroads began to traverse the State in all directions, the Legislature provided for the organization of a State Board of Agriculture, whose scope was not only agriculture but also horticulture and the mechanic and household arts. The rapid growth of the State soon necessitated a differentiation of this body, and in the autumn of 1860, at Indianapolis, there was organized the

INDIANA POMOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

October 18, Reuben Ragan was elected President and Wm. H. Loomis, of Marion county, Secretary. The constitution adopted provided for biennial meetings in January, at Indianapolis. At the first regular meeting, Jan. 9, 1861, a committee-man for each congressional district was appointed, all of them together to be known as the "State Fruit Committee," and twenty-five members were enrolled during this session. At the regular meeting in 1863 the constitution was so amended as to provide for annual sessions, and the address of the newly elected President, Hon. I. G. D. Nelson, of Allen county, urged the establishment of an agricultural college. He continued in the good cause until his work was crowned with success.

In 1864 there was but little done on account of the exhaustive demands of the great war; and the descent of mercury 60° in eighteen hours did so much mischief as to increase the discouragement to the verge of despair. The title of the society was at this meeting, Jan., 1864, changed to that of the Indiana Horticultural Society.

The first several meetings of the Society were mostly devoted to revision of fruit lists; and although the good work, from its vastness and complication, became somewhat monotonous, it has been no exception in this respect to the law that all the greatest and most productive labors of mankind require perseverance and toil.

In 1866, George M. Beeler, who had so indefatigably served as Secretary for several years, saw himself hastening to his grave, and showed his love for the cause of fruit culture by bequeathing to the Society the sum of \$1,000. This year also the State Superintendent of Public Instruction was induced to take a copy of the Society's transactions for each of the township libraries in the State, and this enabled the Society to bind its volume of proceedings in a substantial manner.

At the meeting in 1867 many valuable and interesting papers were presented, the office of corresponding secretary was created, and the subject of Legislative aid was discussed. The

State Board of Agriculture placed the management of the horticultural department of the State fair in the care of the Society.

The report for 1868 shows for the first time a balance on hand, after paying expenses, the balance being \$61.55. Up to this time the Society had to take care of itself,—meeting current expenses, doing its own printing and binding, "boarding and clothing itself," and diffusing annually an amount of knowledge utterly incalculable. During the year called meetings were held at Salem, in the peach and grape season, and evenings during the State fair, which was held in Terre Haute the previous fall. The State now assumed the cost of printing and binding, but the volume of transactions was not quite so valuable as that of the former year.

In 1870 \$160 was given to this Society by the State Board of Agriculture, to be distributed as prizes for essays, which object was faithfully carried out. The practice has since then been continued.

In 1871 the Horticultural Society brought out the best volume of papers and proceedings it ever has had published.

In 1872 the office of corresponding secretary was discontinued; the appropriation by the State Board of Agriculture diverted to the payment of premiums on small fruits given at a show held the previous summer; results of the exhibition not entirely satisfactory.

In 1873 the State officials refused to publish the discussions of the members of the Horticultural Society, and the Legislature appropriated \$500 for the purpose for each of the ensuing two years, which amount was increased to \$1,000 in 1895.

In 1875 the Legislature enacted a law requiring that one of the trustees of Purdue University shall be selected by the Horticultural Society.

The aggregate annual membership of this Society from its organization in 1860 to 1875 was 1,225.

EDUCATION.

The subject of education has been referred to in almost every gubernatorial message from the organization of the Territory to the present time. It is indeed the most favorite enterprise of the Hoosier State. In the first survey of Western lands, Congress set apart a section of land in every township, generally the 16th, for school purposes, the disposition of the land to be in hands of the residents of the respective townships. Besides this, to this State were given two entire town-

ships for the use of a State Seminary, to be under the control of the Legislature. Also, the State constitution provides that all fines for the breach of law and all commutations for militia service be appropriated to the use of county seminaries. In 1825 the common-school lands amounted to 680,207 acres, estimated at \$2 an acre, and valued therefore at \$1,216,044. At this time the seminary at Bloomington, supported in part by one of these township grants, was very flourishing. The common schools, however, were in rather a poor condition.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

In 1852 the free-school system was fully established, which has resulted in placing Indiana in the lead of this great nation. Although this is a pleasant subject, it is a very large one to treat in a condensed notice, as this has to be.

The free-school system of Indiana first became practically operative the first Monday of April, 1853, when the township trustees for school purposes were elected through the State. The law committed to them the charge of all the educational affairs in their respective townships. As it was feared by the opponents of the law that it would not be possible to select men in all the townships capable of executing the school laws satisfactorily, the people were thereby awakened to the necessity of electing their very best men; and although, of course, many blunders have been made by trustees, the operation of the law has tended to elevate the adult population as well as the youth; and Indiana still adheres to the policy of appointing its best men to educational positions. The result is a grand surprise to all old fogies, who indeed scarcely dare to appear such any longer.

To instruct the people in the new law and set the educational machinery going, a pamphlet of over 60 pages, embracing the law, with notes and explanations, was issued from the office of a superintendent of public instruction, and distributed freely throughout the State. The first duty of the Board of Trustees was to establish and conveniently locate a sufficient number of schools for the education of all the children of their township. But where were the school-houses, and what were they? Previously they had been erected by single districts, but under this law districts were abolished, their lines obliterated, and houses previously built by districts became the property of the township, and all the houses were to be built at the expense of the township by an appropriation of township funds by the trustees. In some townships there was not

a single school-house of any kind, and in others there were a few old, leaky, dilapidated log cabins, wholly unfit for use even in summer, and in "winter worse than nothing." Before the people could be tolerably accommodated with schools at least 3,500 school-houses had to be erected in the State.

By a general law, enacted in conformity to the constitution of 1852, each township was made a municipal corporation, and every voter in the township a member of the corporation; the Board of Trustees constituted the township legislature as well as the executive body, the whole body of voters, however, exercising direct control through frequent meetings called by the trustees. Special taxes and every other matter of importance were directly voted upon.

Some tax-payers, who were opposed to special townships' taxes, retarded the progress of schools by refusing to pay their assessment. Contracts for building school-houses were given up, houses half finished were abandoned, and in many townships all school operations were suspended. In some of them, indeed, a rumor was circulated by the enemies of the law that the entire school law from beginning to end had been declared by the Supreme Court unconstitutional and void; and the trustees, believing this, actually dismissed their schools and considered themselves out of office. Hon. W. C. Larrabee, the (first) Superintendent of Public Instruction, corrected this error as soon as possible.

But while the voting of special taxes was doubted on a constitutional point, it became evident that it was weak in a practical point; for in many townships the opponents of the system voted down every proposition for the erection of school-houses.

Another serious obstacle was the great deficiency in the number of qualified teachers. To meet the newly created want, the law authorized the appointment of deputies in each county to examine and license persons to teach, leaving it in their judgment to lower the standard of qualification sufficiently to enable them to license as many as were needed to supply all the schools. It was therefore found necessary to employ many "unqualified" teachers, especially in the remote rural districts. But the progress of the times enabled the Legislature of 1853 to erect a standard of qualification and give to the county commissioners the authority to license teachers; and in order to supply every school with a teacher, while there might not be a sufficient number of properly qualified teachers, the commissioners were authorized to grant temporary licenses to take charge of particular schools not needing a high grade of teachers.

In 1854 the available common-school fund consisted of the congressional township fund, the surplus revenue fund, the saline fund, the bank tax fund and miscellaneous fund, amounting in all to \$2,400,600. This amount, from many sources, was subsequently increased to a very great extent. The common-school fund was intrusted to the several counties of the State, which were held responsible for the preservation thereof and for the payment of the annual interest thereon. The fund was managed by the auditors and treasurers of the several counties, for which these officers were allowed one-tenth of the income. It was loaned out to the citizens of the county in sums not exceeding \$300, on real estate security. The common-school fund was thus consolidated and the proceeds equally distributed each year to all the townships, cities and towns of the State, in proportion to the number of children. This phase of the law met with considerable opposition in 1854.

The provisions of the law for the establishment of township libraries was promptly carried into effect, and much time, labor and thought were devoted to the selection of books, special attention being paid to historical works.

The greatest need in 1854 was for qualified teachers; but nevertheless the progress of public education during this and following years was very great. School-houses were erected, many of them being fine structures, well furnished, and the libraries were considerably enlarged.

The city school system of Indiana received a heavy set-back in 1858, by a decision of the Supreme Court of the State, that the law authorizing cities and townships to levy a tax additional to the State tax was not in conformity with that clause in the Constitution which required uniformity in taxation. The schools were stopped for want of adequate funds. For a few weeks in each year thereafter the feeble "uniform" supply from the State fund enabled the people to open the schools, but considering the returns the public realizes for so small an outlay in educational matters, this proved more expensive than ever. Private schools increased, but the attendance was small. Thus the interests of popular education languished for years. But since the revival of the free schools, the State fund has grown to vast proportions, and the schools of this intelligent and enterprising commonwealth compare favorably with those of any other portion of the United States.

There is no occasion to present all the statistics of school progress in this State from the first to the present time. The rapid, substantial and permanent increase which Indiana en-

joys in her school interests, will best be demonstrated by comparing a few of the official reports issued at the earliest date and recently:

Year.	Number of Teachers.	Attendance at School.	School Enumeration.
1855.....	4,016	206,994	445,791
1878.....	13,676	512,535	699,153
1894.....	14,071	541,570	808,261

The average number enrolled in each district varies from the average daily attendance to a certain extent, but this is mostly due to the fact that many children reported as absent attend parochial or private schools.

The number of days taught vary materially in the different townships, and on this point State Superintendent Smart in his report for 1877-78 very ably remarks:

"As long as the schools of some of our townships are kept open but 60 days and others 220 days, we do not have a uniform system,—such as was contemplated by the constitution. The school law requires the trustee of a township to maintain each of the schools in his corporation an equal length of time. This provision cannot be so easily applied to the various counties of the State, for the reason that there is a variation in the density of the population, in the wealth of the people, and the amount of the township funds. I think, however, there is scarcely a township trustee in the State who cannot, under the present law, if he chooses to do so, bring his schools up to an average of six months. I think it would be wise to require each township trustee to levy a sufficient local tax to maintain the schools at least six months of the year, provided this can be done without increasing the local tax beyond the amount now permitted by law. This would tend to bring the poorer schools up to the standard of the best, and would thus unify the system, and make it indeed a common-school system."

The number of teachers in 1878 increased from 13,676 to 14,071 in 1894, of which, 7,072 were males and 6,999 females.

The average daily compensation throughout the State in 1894 was as follows: In townships, males \$2.08; females \$2.00—in towns, males, \$3.01; females \$2.02—in cities, males, \$3.63; females, \$2.22,—average for the State at large: males \$2.38; females \$2.06.

In 1878 there were 89 stone school-houses, 1,724 brick, 7,603 frame, and 124 log; total, 9,545, valued at \$11,536,647. These figures have materially changed in the course of time; the old frame and log houses have mostly disappeared; new, substantial and more spacious brick buildings have been erected in their places and their value has increased to a considerable and remarkable extent. The reports of 1894 show that there were 87 stone school-houses, 2,282 brick, 5,514 frame and 7 log; total 7,890, valued at \$18,946,621.

And lastly, and best of all, we are happy to state that Indiana has a larger school fund than any other State in the Union, larger than that of any other State by at least \$2,000,000, according to statistics obtainable.

Without going into any lengthy detail on this subject we will here reproduce a summary of the school fund in 1894 as follows:

Common School Fund held by counties June, 1894.....	\$7,585,228
Congressional Township Fund held by counties June, 1894...	2,571,935
Total Fund June, 1894.....	\$11,157,163

The origin of the respective school funds of Indiana is as follows:

1. The "Congressional township" fund is derived from the proceeds of the 16th sections of the townships. Almost all of these have been sold and the money put out at interest. The amount of this fund in 1877 was \$2,452,936.82.

2. The "saline" fund consists of the proceeds of the sale of salt springs, and the land adjoining necessary for working them to the amount of 36 entire sections, authorized by the original act of Congress. By authority of the same act the Legislature has made these proceeds a part of the permanent school fund.

3. The "surplus revenue" fund. Under the administration of President Jackson, the national debt, contracted by the Revolutionary war and the purchase of Louisiana, was entirely discharged, and a large surplus remained in the treasury. In June, 1836, Congress distributed this money among the States in the ratio of their representation in Congress, subject to recall, and Indiana's share was \$860,254. The Legislature subsequently set apart \$573,502.96 of this amount to be a part of the school fund. It is not probable that the general Government will ever recall this money.

4. "Bank tax" fund. The Legislature of 1834 chartered a State Bank, of which a part of the stock was owned by the

State and a part by individuals. Section 15 of the charter required an annual deduction from the dividends, equal to 12 1/2 cents on each share not held by the State, to be set apart for common-school education. This tax finally amounted to \$80,000, which now bears interest in favor of education.

5. "Sinking" fund. In order to set the State bank under good headway, the State at first borrowed \$1,300,000, and out of the unapplied balances a fund was created, increased by unapplied balances, also the principal, interest and dividends of the amount lent to the individual holders of stock, for the purpose of sinking the debt of the bank; hence the name sinking fund. The 114th section of the charter provided that after the full payment of the bank's indebtedness, principal, interest and incidental expenses, the residue of said fund should be a permanent fund, appropriated to the cause of education. As the charter extended through a period of 25 years, this fund ultimately reached the handsome amount of \$5,000,000.

The foregoing are all interest-bearing funds; the following are additional school funds, but not productive:

6. "Seminary" fund. By order of the Legislature in 1852, all county seminaries were sold, and the net proceeds placed in the common-school fund.

7. All fines for the violation of the penal laws of the State are placed to the credit of the common-school fund.

8. All recognizances of witnesses and parties indicted for crime, when forfeited, are collectible by law and made a part of the school fund. These are reported to the office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction annually. For the five years ending with 1872, they averaged about \$34,000 a year.

9. Escheats. These amount to \$17,865.55, which was still in the State treasury in 1872 and unapplied.

10. The "swamp-land" fund arises from the sale of certain Congressional land grants, not devoted to any particular purpose by the terms of the grant. In 1872 there was \$42,418.40 of this money, subject to call by the school interests.

11. Taxes on corporations are to some extent devoted by the Constitution to school purposes, but the clause on this subject is somewhat obscure, and no funds as yet have been realized from this source. It is supposed that several large sums of money are due the common-school fund from the corporations.

Constitutionally, any of the above funds may be increased, but never diminished.

INDIANA STATE UNIVERSITY.

So early as 1802 the U. S. Congress granted lands and a charter to the people of that portion of the Northwestern Territory residing at Vincennes, for the erection and maintenance of a seminary of learning in that early settled district; and five years afterward an act incorporating the Vincennes University asked the Legislature to appoint a Board of Trustees for the institution and order the sale of a single township in Gibson county, granted by Congress in 1802, so that the proceeds might be at once devoted to the objects of education. On this Board the following gentlemen were appointed to act in the interests of the institution: William H. Harrison, John Gibson, Thomas H. Davis, Henry Vanderburgh, Waller Taylor, Benjamin Parke, Peter Jones, James Johnson, John Rice Jones, George Wallace, William Bullitt, Elias McNamee, John Badolett, Henry Hurst, Gen. W. Johnston, Francis Vigo, Jacob Knykendall, Samuel McKee, Nathaniel Ewing, George Leech, Luke Decker, Samuel Gwathmey and John Johnson.

The sale of this land was slow and the proceeds small. The members of the Board, too, were apathetic, and failing to meet, the institution fell out of existence and out of memory.

In 1816 Congress granted another township in Monroe county, located within its present limits, and the foundation of a university was laid. Four years later, and after Indiana was erected into a State, an act of the local Legislature appointing another Board of Trustees and authorizing them to select a location for a university and to enter into contracts for its construction, was passed. The new Board met at Bloomington and selected a site at that place for the location of the present building, entered into a contract for the erection of the same in 1822, and in 1825 had the satisfaction of being present at the inauguration of the university. The first session was commenced under the Rev. Baynard R. Hall, with 20 students, and when the learned professor could only boast of a salary of \$150 a year; yet, on this very limited sum the gentleman worked with energy and soon brought the enterprise through all its elementary stages to the position of an academic institution. Dividing the year into two sessions of five months each, the Board acting under his advice, changed the name to the "Indiana Academy," under which title it was duly chartered. In 1827 Prof. John H. Harney was raised to the chairs of mathematics, natural philosophy and astronomy, at a salary of \$300 a year; and the salary of Mr. Hall raised to \$400 a year. In 1828 the name was again changed by the Legislature

to the "Indiana College," and the following professors appointed over the different departments: Rev. Andrew Wylie, D. D., Prof. of mental and moral philosophy and belles lettres; John H. Harney, Prof. of mathematics and natural philosophy; and Rev. Bayard R. Hall, Prof. of ancient languages. This year, also, dispositions were made for the sale of Gibson county lands and for the erection of a new college building. This action was opposed by some legal difficulties, which after a time were overcome, and the new college building was put under construction, and continued to prosper until 1854, when it was destroyed by fire, and 9,000 volumes, with all the apparatus, were consumed. The curriculum was then carried out in a temporary building, while a new structure was going up.

In 1873 the new college, with its additions, was completed, and the routine of studies continued. A museum of natural history, a laboratory and the Owen cabinet added, and the standard of the studies and *morale* generally increased in excellence and in strictness.

Bloomington is a fine, healthful locality, on the Louisville, New Albany & Chicago railway. The University buildings are in the collegiate Gothic style, simply and truly carried out. The building, fronting College avenue, is 145 feet in front. It consists of a central building 60 feet by 53, with wings each 38 feet by 26, and the whole, three stories high. The new building, fronting the west, is 130 feet by 50. Buildings lighted by gas.

PURDUE UNIVERSITY.

This is a "college for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts," as provided for by act of Congress, July 2, 1862, donating lands for this purpose to the extent of 30,000 acres of the public domain to each Senator and Representative in the Federal assembly. Indiana having in Congress at that time thirteen members, became entitled to 390,000 acres; but as there was no Congress land in the State at this time, scrip had to be taken, and it was upon the following condition (we quote the act):

"Section 4. That all moneys derived from the sale of land scrip shall be invested in the stocks of the United States, or of some other safe stocks, yielding no less than five per centum upon the par value of said stocks; and that the moneys so invested shall constitute a perpetual fund, the capital of which shall remain undiminished, except so far as may be provided in section 5 of this act, and the interest of which shall be in-

violably appropriated by each State, which may take and claim the benefit of this act, to the endowment, support and maintenance of at least one college, where the leading object shall be, without excluding other scientific and classical studies, and including military tactics, to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts, in such a manner as the Legislatures of the States may respectively prescribe, in order to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions of life.

"Sec. 5. That the grant of land and land scrip hereby authorized shall be made on the following conditions, to which, as well as the provision hereinbefore contained, the previous assent of the several States shall be signified by Legislative act:

"First. If any portion of the funds invested as provided by the foregoing section, or any portion of the interest thereon, shall by any action or contingency be diminished or lost, it shall be replaced by the State to which it belongs, so that the capital of the fund shall remain forever undiminished, and the annual interest shall be regularly applied, without diminution, to the purposes mentioned in the fourth section of this act, except that a sum not exceeding ten per centum upon the amount received by any State under the provisions of this act may be expended for the purchase of lands for sites or experimental farms, whenever authorized by the respective Legislatures of said States.

"Second. No portion of said fund, nor interest thereon, shall be applied, directly or indirectly, under any pretence whatever to the purchase, erection, preservation or repair of any building or buildings.

"Third. Any State which may take and claim the benefit of the provisions of this act, shall provide, within five years at least, not less than one college, as provided in the fourth section of this act, or the grant to such State shall cease and said State be bound to pay the United States the amount received of any lands previously sold, and that the title to purchase under the States shall be valid.

"Fourth. An annual report shall be made regarding the progress of each college, recording any improvements and experiments made, with their cost and result, and such other matter, including State industrial and economical statistics, as may be supposed useful, one copy of which shall be transmitted by mail free, by each, to all other colleges which may be endowed under the provisions of this act, and also one copy to the Secretary of the Interior.

"Fifth. When lands shall be selected from those which have been raised to double the minimum price in consequence of railroad grants, that they shall be computed to the States at the maximum price, and the number of acres proportionately diminished.

"Sixth. No State, while in a condition of rebellion or insurrection against the Government of the United States, shall be entitled to the benefits of this act.

"Seventh. No State shall be entitled to the benefits of this act unless it shall express its acceptance thereof by its Legislature within two years from the date of its approval by the President."

The foregoing act was approved by the President, July 2, 1862. It seemed that this law, amid the din of arms with the great Rebellion, was about to pass altogether unnoticed by the next General Assembly. January, 1863, had not Gov. Morton's attention been called to it by a delegation of citizens from Tippecanoe county, who visited him in the interest of Battle Ground. He thereupon sent a special message to the Legislature, upon the subject, and then public attention was excited to it everywhere, and several localities competed for the institution; indeed, the rivalry was so great that this session failed to act in the matter at all, and would have failed to accept of the grant within the two years prescribed in the last clause quoted above, had not Congress, by a supplementary act, extended the time two years longer.

March 6, 1865, the Legislature accepted the conditions of the national gift, and organized the Board of "Trustees of the Indiana Agricultural College." This Board, by authority, sold the scrip April 9, 1867, for \$212,238.50, which sum, by compounding, has increased to nearly \$400,000, and is invested in U. S. bonds. Not until the special session of May, 1869, was the locality for this college selected, when John Purdue, of Lafayette, offered \$150,000 and Tippecanoe county \$50,000 more, and the title of the institution changed to "Purdue University." Donations were also made by the Battle Ground Institute and the Battle Ground Institute of the Methodist Episcopal Church.

The building was located on a 100-acre tract near Chauncey, which Purdue gave in addition to his magnificent donation, and to which 861-2 acres more have since been added on the north. The boarding-house, dormitory, the laboratory, boiler and gas house, a frame armory and gymnasium, stable with shed and work-shop are all to the north of the gravel road, and form a group of buildings within a circle of 600 feet. The boiler and gas house occupy a rather central position, and sup-

ply steam and gas to the boarding-house, dormitory and laboratory. A description of these buildings may be apropos. The boarding-house is a brick structure, in the modern Italian style, planked by a turret at each of the front angles and measuring 120 feet front by 68 feet deep. The dormitory is a quadrangular edifice, in the plain Elizabethan style, four stories high, arranged to accommodate 125 students. Like the other buildings, it is heated by steam and lighted by gas. Bathing accommodations are in each end of all the stories. The laboratory is almost a duplicate of a similar department in Brown University, R. I. It is a much smaller building than the boarding-house, but yet sufficiently large to meet the requirements. A collection of minerals, fossils and antiquities, purchased from Mr. Richard Owen, former President of the institution, occupies the temporary cabinet or museum, pending the construction of a new building. The military hall and gymnasium is 100 feet frontage by 50 feet deep, and only one story high. The uses to which this hall is devoted are exercises in physical and military drill. The boiler and gas house is an establishment replete in itself, possessing every facility for supplying the buildings of the university with adequate heat and light. It is further provided with pumping works. Convenient to this department is the retort and great meters of the gas house capable of holding 9 000 cubic feet of gas, and arranged upon the principles of modern science. The barn and shed form a single building, both useful, convenient and ornamental.

In connection with the agricultural department of the university, a brick residence and barn were erected and placed at the disposal of the farm superintendent, Maj. L. A. Burke.

The buildings enumerated above have been erected at a cost approximating the following: boarding-house, \$37,807.07; laboratory, \$15,000; dormitory, \$32,000; military hall and gymnasium, \$6,410.47; boiler and gas house, \$4,814; barn and shed, \$1,500; work-shop, \$1,000; dwelling and barn, \$2,500.

Besides the original donations, Legislative appropriations, varying in amount, have been made from time to time, and Mr. Pierce, the treasurer, has donated his official salary, \$600 a year, for the time he served, for decorating the grounds,—if necessary.

The opening of the university was, owing to varied circumstances, postponed from time to time, and not until March, 1874, was a class formed, and this only to comply with the act of Congress in that connection in its relation to the university. However, in September following a curriculum was adopted, and the first regular term of the Purdue University entered

upon. This curriculum comprises the varied subjects generally pertaining to a first-class university course, namely: in the school of natural science—physics and industrial mechanics, chemistry and natural history; in the school of engineering—civil and mining, together with the principles of architecture; in the school of agriculture—theoretical and practical agriculture, horticulture and veterinary science; in the military school—the mathematical sciences, German and French literature, free-hand and mechanical drawing, with all the studies pertaining to the natural and military sciences. Modern languages and natural history embrace their respective courses to the fullest extent.

INDIANA STATE NORMAL SCHOOL.

This institution was founded at Terre Haute in 1870, in accordance with the act of the Legislature of that year. The building is a large brick edifice situated upon a commanding location and possessing some architectural beauties. From its inauguration many obstacles opposed its advance toward efficiency and success: but the Board of Trustees, composed of men experienced in educational matters, exercised their strength of mind and body to overcome every difficulty, and secure for the State Normal School every distinction and emolument that lay within their power, their efforts to this end being very successful; and it is a fact that the institution has arrived at, if not eclipsed, the standard of their expectations. Not alone does the course of study embrace the legal subjects known as reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, geography, United States history, English grammar, physiology, manners and ethics, but it includes also universal history, the mathematical sciences and many other subjects foreign to older institutions. The first studies are prescribed by law and must be inculcated; the second are optional with the professors, and in the case of Indiana generally hold place in the curriculum of the normal school.

The model, or training school, specially designed for the training of teachers, forms a most important factor in State educational matters, and prepares teachers of both sexes for one of the most important positions in life, viz., that of educating the youth of the State. The advanced course of studies, together with the higher studies of the normal school, embraces Latin and German, and prepares young men and women for entrance to the State University.

The efficiency of this school may be elicited from the follow-

ing facts, taken from the official reports: out of 41 persons who had graduated from the elementary course, nine, after teaching successfully in the public schools of this State from two terms to two years, returned to the institution and sought admission to the advanced classes. They were admitted; three of them were gentlemen and six ladies. After spending two years and two terms in the elementary course, and then teaching in the schools during the time already mentioned they returned to spend two and a half or three years more, and for the avowed purpose of qualifying themselves for teaching in the most responsible positions of the public school service. In fact, no student is admitted to the school who does not in good faith declare his intention to qualify himself for teaching in the schools of the State. This the law requires, and the rule is adhered to literally.

The report further says, in speaking of the government of the school, that the fundamental idea is rational freedom, or that freedom which gives exemption from the power of control of one over another, or, in other words, the self-limiting of themselves, in their acts, by a recognition of the rights of others who are equally free. The idea and origin of the school being laid down, and also the means by which scholarship can be realized in the individual, the student is left to form his own conduct, both during session hours and while away from school. The teacher merely stands between this scholastic idea and the student's own partial conception of it, as expositor or interpreter. The teacher is not legislator, executor or police officer; he is expounder of the true idea of school law, so that the only test of the student's conduct is obedience to, or nonconformity with, that law as interpreted by the teacher. This idea once inculcated in the minds of the students insures industry, punctuality and order.

NORTHERN INDIANA NORMAL SCHOOL AND BUSINESS INSTITUTE, VALPARAISO.

This institution was organized Sept. 16, 1873, with 35 students in attendance. The school occupied the building known as the Valparaiso Male and Female College building. Four teachers were employed. The attendance, so small at first, increased rapidly and steadily, until at the present writing, the seventh year in the history of the school, the yearly enrollment is more than three thousand. The number of instructors now employed is 23.

From time to time, additions have been made to the school

buildings, and numerous boarding halls have been erected, so that now the value of the buildings and grounds owned by the school is one hundred thousand dollars.

A large library has been collected, and a complete equipment of philosophical and chemical apparatus has been purchased. The department of physiology is supplied with skeletons, manikins, and everything necessary to the demonstration of each branch of the subject. A large cabinet is provided for the study of geology. In fact, each department of the school is completely furnished with the apparatus needed for the most approved presentation of every subject.

There are 15 chartered departments in the institution. These are in charge of thorough, energetic, and scholarly instructors, and send forth each year as graduates, a large number of finely cultured young ladies and gentlemen, living testimonials of the efficiency of the course of study and the methods used.

The Commercial College in connection with the school is in itself a great institution. It is finely fitted up and furnished, and ranks foremost among the business colleges of the United States.

The expenses for tuition, room and board, have been made so low that an opportunity for obtaining a thorough education is presented to the poor and the rich alike.

All of this work has been accomplished in the short space of seven years. The school now holds a high place among educational institutions, and is the largest normal school in the United States.

This wonderful growth and development is wholly due to the energy and faithfulness of its teachers, and the unparalleled executive ability of its proprietor and principal. The school is not endowed.

DENOMINATIONAL AND PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS.

Nor is Indiana behind in literary institutions under denominational auspices. It is not to be understood, however, at the present day, that sectarian doctrines are insisted upon at the so-called "denominational" colleges, universities and seminaries; the youth at these places are influenced only by Christian example.

Notre Dame University, near South Bend, is a Catholic institution, and is one of the most noted in the United States. It was founded in 1842 by Father Sorin. The first building was erected in 1843, and the university has continued to grow and

prosper until the present time, now having 35 professors, 26 instructors, 9 tutors, 213 students and 12,000 volumes in library. At present the main building has a frontage of 224 feet and a depth of 155. Thousands of young people have received their education here, and a large number have been graduated for the priesthood. A chapter was held here in 1872, attended by delegates from all parts of the world. It is worthy of mention that this institution has a bell weighing 13,000 pounds, the largest in the United States and one of the finest in the world.

The De Pauw University, formerly known as the Indiana Asbury University, at Greencastle, is an old and well-established institution under the auspices of the Methodist Episcopal Church, named after its first bishop, Asbury. It was founded in 1835, and in 1872 it had nine professors and 172 students.

Howard College, not denominational, is located at Kokomo, and was founded in 1869. In 1872 it had five professors, four instructors, and 69 students.

Union Christian College, Christian, at Merom, was organized in 1858, and in 1872 had four resident professors, seven instructors and 156 students.

Moore's Hill College, Methodist Episcopal, is situated at Moore's Hill, was founded in 1854, and in 1872 had five resident professors, five instructors, and 142 students.

Earlham's College, at Richmond, is under the management of the Orthodox Friends, and was founded in 1859. In 1872 they had six resident professors and 167 students, and 3,300 volumes in library.

Wabash College, at Crawfordsville, was organized in 1834, and had in 1872, eight professors and teachers, and 231 students, with about 12,000 volumes in the library. It is under Presbyterian management.

Concordia College, Lutheran, at Fort Wayne, was founded in 1850; in 1872 it had four professors and 148 students; 3,000 volumes in library.

Hanover College, Presbyterian, was organized in 1833, at Hanover, and in 1872 had seven professors and 118 students, and 7,000 volumes in library.

Hartsville University, United Brethren, at Hartsville, was founded in 1854, and in 1872 had seven professors and 117 students.

The Butler University, formerly Northwestern Christian University, Disciples, is located at Irvington, near Indianapolis. Founded in 1854 it had 15 resident professors in 1872, 181 students and 5,000 volumes in the library.

St. Mary's of the Woods, a Catholic institution near Terre

Haute, and *Coate's College* and the *Rose Polytechnic Institute* at Terre Haute.

Northwestern Christian University, Disciples, is located at Irvington, near Indianapolis. It was founded in 1854, and by 1872 it had 15 resident professors, 181 students, and 5,000 volumes in library.

BENEVOLENT AND PENAL INSTITUTIONS.

By the year 1830, the influx of paupers and invalid persons was so great that the Governor called upon the Legislature to take steps toward regulating the matter, and also to provide an asylum for the poor, but that body was very slow to act on the matter. At the present time, however, there is no State in the Union which can boast a better system of benevolent institutions. The Benevolent Society of Indianapolis was organized in 1843. It was a pioneer institution; its field of work was small at first, but it has grown into great usefulness.

INSTITUTE FOR THE EDUCATION OF THE BLIND.

In behalf of the blind, the first effort was made by James M. Ray, about 1846. Through his efforts William H. Churchman came from Kentucky with blind pupils and gave exhibitions in Mr. Beecher's church, in Indianapolis. These entertainments were attended by members of the Legislature, for whom indeed they were especially intended, and the effect upon them was so good, that before they adjourned the session they adopted measures to establish an asylum for the blind. The commission appointed to carry out these measures, consisting of James M. Ray, Geo. W. Mears, and the Secretary, Treasurer and Auditor of State, engaged Mr. Churchman to make a lecturing tour through the State and collect statistics of the blind population.

The "Institute for the Education of the Blind" was founded by the Legislature of 1847, and first opened in a rented building Oct. 1, of that year. The permanent buildings were opened and occupied in February, 1853. The original cost of the buildings and ground was \$110,000 and the present valuation of buildings and grounds approximates \$300,000. In 1896 the sum of \$33,133 was appropriated for the maintenance of this institute. The main building is 90 feet long by 61 deep, and with its right and left wings, each 30 feet in front and 83 in depth, give an entire frontage of 150 feet. The main building is five stories in height, surmounted by a cupola of the Cor-

inthian style, while each wing is similarly overcapped. The porticoes, cornices and verandahs are gotten up with exquisite taste, and the former are molded after the principle of Ionic architecture. The building is very favorably situated, and occupies a space of eight acres.

The nucleus of a fund for supplying indigent graduates of the institution with an outfit suitable to their trades, or with money in lieu thereof, promises to meet with many additions. The fund is the outcome of the benevolence of Mrs. Fitzpatrick, a resident of Delaware, in this State, and appears to be suggested by the fact that her daughter, who was smitten with blindness, studied as a pupil in the institute, and became singularly attached to many of its inmates. The following passage from the lady's will bears testimony not only to her own sympathetic nature but also to the efficiency of the establishment which so won her esteem: "I give to each of the following persons, friends and associates of my blind daughter, Margaret Louisa, the sum of \$100 each, to wit, viz.: Melissa and Phoebe Garrettson, Frances Cundiff, Dallas Newland, Naomi Unthunk, and a girl whose name before marriage was Rachel Martin, her husband's name not recollected. The balance of my estate, after paying the expenses of administering, I give to the superintendent of the blind asylum and his successor, in trust, for the use and benefit of the indigent blind of Indiana who may attend the Indiana blind asylum, to be given to them on leaving in such sums as the superintendent may deem proper, but not more than \$50 to any one person. I direct that the amount above directed be loaned at interest, and the interest and principal be distributed as above, agreeably to the best judgment of the superintendent, so as to do the greatest good to the greatest number of blind persons."

The following rules regulating the institution, after laying down in preamble that the institute is strictly an educational establishment having its main object the moral, intellectual, and physical training of the young blind of the State, and is not an asylum for the aged and helpless, nor an hospital wherein the diseases of the eye may be treated, proceed as follows:

1. The school year commences the first Wednesday after the 15th day of September, and closes on the last Wednesday in June, showing a session of 40 weeks, and a vacation term of 84 days.

2. Applicants for admission must be from 9 to 21 years of age; but the trustees have power to admit blind students under 9 or over 21 years of age; but this power is extended only in very extreme cases.

3. Imbecile or unsound persons, or confirmed immoralists, cannot be admitted knowingly; neither can admitted pupils who prove disobedient or incompetent to receive instructions be retained on the roll.

4. No charge is made for the instruction and board given to pupils from the State of Indiana; and even those without the State have only to pay \$200 for board and education during the 40 weeks' session.

5. An abundant and good supply of comfortable clothing for both summer and winter wear, is an indispensable adjunct of the pupil.

6. The owner's name must be distinctly marked on each article of clothing.

7. In cases of extreme indigence the institution may provide clothing and defray the traveling expenses of such pupil and levy the amount so expended on the county wherein his or her home is situated.

8. The pupil, or friends of the pupil, must remove him or her from the institute during the annual vacation, and in case of their failure to do so, a legal provision enables the superintendent to forward such pupil to the trustee of the township where he or she resides, and the expense of such transit and board to be charged to the county.

9. Friends of the pupils accompanying them to the institution, or visiting thereat, cannot enter as boarders or lodgers.

10. Letters to the pupils should be addressed to the care of the Superintendent of the Institute for the Education of the Blind, so as the better to insure delivery.

11. Persons desirous of admission of pupils should apply to the superintendent for a printed copy of instructions, and no pupil should be sent thereto until the instructions have been complied with.

INSTITUTE FOR THE DEAF AND DUMB.

In 1843 the Governor was also instructed to obtain plans and information respecting the care of mutes, and the Legislature also levied a tax to provide for them. The first one to agitate the subject was William Willard, himself a mute, who visited Indiana in 1843, and opened a school for mutes on his own account, with 16 pupils. The next year the Legislature adopted this school as a State institution, appointing a Board of Trustees for its management, consisting of the Governor and Secretary of State, ex-officio, and Revs. Henry Ward Beecher,

Phineas D. Gurley, L. H. Jameson, Dr. Dumlup, Hon. James Morrison and Rev. Matthew Simpson. They rented the large building on the southeast corner of Illinois and Maryland streets, and opened the first State asylum there in 1844; but in 1846, a site for a permanent building just east of Indianapolis was selected, consisting first of 30 acres, to which 100 more have been added. On this site the first two structures were commenced in 1849, and completed in the fall of 1850, at a cost of \$30,000. The school was immediately transferred to the new building, where it is still flourishing, with enlarged buildings and ample facilities for instruction in agriculture. In 1869-70, another building was erected, and the three together now constitute one of the most beneficent and beautiful institutions to be found on this continent, at an aggregate cost of \$220,000. The main building has a facade of 260 feet. Here are the offices, study rooms, the quarters of officers and teachers, the pupils' dormitories and the library. The center of this building has a frontage of eighty feet, and is five stories high, with wings on either side 60 feet in frontage. In this Central structure are the store rooms, dining-hall, servants' rooms, hospital, laundry, kitchen, bakery and several school-rooms. Another structure known as the "rear building" contains the chapel and another set of school-rooms. It is two stories high, the center being 50 feet square and the wings 40 by 20 feet. In addition to these there are many detached buildings, containing the shops of the industrial department, the engine-house and wash-house.

The grounds comprise 105 acres, which in the immediate vicinity of the buildings partake of the character of ornamental or pleasure gardens, comprising a space devoted to fruits, flowers and vegetables, while the greater part is devoted to pasture and agriculture. In 1896, the sum of \$67,357 was appropriated for this institution.

HOSPITAL FOR THE INSANE.

The Legislature of 1832-3 adopted measures providing for a State hospital for the insane. This good work would have been done much earlier had it not been for the hard times of 1837, intensified by the results of the gigantic scheme of internal improvement. In order to survey the situation and awaken public sympathy, the county assessors were ordered to make a return of the insane in their respective counties. During the year 1842 the Governor, acting under the direction of the Legislature, procured considerable information in regard

to hospitals for the insane in other States; and Dr. John Evans lectured before the Legislature on the subject of insanity and its treatment. As a result of these efforts the authorities determined to take active steps for the establishment of such a hospital. Plans and suggestions from the superintendents and hospitals of other States were submitted to the Legislature in 1844, which body ordered the levy of a tax of one cent on the \$100 for the purpose of establishing the hospital. In 1845 a commission was appointed to obtain a site not exceeding 200 acres. Mount Jackson, then the residence of Nathaniel Bolton, was selected, and the Legislature in 1846 ordered the commissioners to proceed with the erection of the building. Accordingly, in 1847, the central building was completed, at a cost of \$75 000. It has since been enlarged by the addition of wings, some of which are larger than the old central building, until it has become an immense structure, having cost over half a million dollars. For the maintenance of this vast institute, which is now known as the *Central Hospital for the Insane*, an appropriation of \$289,368 was made in 1896.

Notwithstanding the enormous dimensions of this hospital, which was opened for the reception of patients in 1848, it soon became inadequate to harbor all the patients, which numerically increased to an alarming extent. As a logical consequence of this condition of affairs the different Legislatures passed resolutions ordering the erection of additional hospitals in different parts of the State, of which we now have four, viz.: the above mentioned Central Hospital, the Northern, the Eastern and the Southern Hospitals for the Insane. The amounts appropriated in 1896 for the three last named institutions are \$104,818, \$94,882 and \$79,806 respectively.

THE STATE PRISON SOUTH.

The first penal institution of importance is known as the "State Prison South" located at Jeffersonville, and was the only prison until 1859. It was established in 1821. Before that time it was customary to resort to the old-time punishment of the whipping-post. Later the manual labor system was inaugurated, and the convicts were hired out to employers, among whom were Capt. Westover, afterward killed at Alamo, Texas, with Crockett, James Keigwin, who in an affray was fired at and severely wounded by a convict named Williams, Messrs. Patterson Hensley, and Jos. R. Pratt. During the rule of the latter of these lessees, the attention of the authorities was turned to a more practical method of utilizing convict

labor; and instead of the prisoners being permitted to serve private entries their work was turned in the direction of their own prison, where for the next few years they were employed in erecting the new buildings now known as the "State Prison South." This structure, the result of prison labor, stands on 16 acres of ground, and comprises the cell houses and workshops, together with the prisoners' garden, or pleasure-ground.

It seems that in the erection of these buildings the aim of the overseers was to create so many petty dungeons and unventilated laboratories, into which disease in every form would be apt to creep. This fact was evident from the high mortality characterizing life within the prison; and in the efforts made by the Government to remedy a state of things which had been permitted to exist far too long, the advance in prison reform has become a reality. From 1857 to 1871 the labor of the prisoners was devoted to the manufacture of wagons and farm implements; and again the old policy of hiring the convicts was resorted to; for in the latter year, 1871, the Southwestern Car Company was organized, and every prisoner capable of taking a part in the work of car-building was leased out. This did very well until the panic of 1873, when the company suffered irretrievable losses; and previous to its final down-fall in 1876 the warden withdrew convict labor a second time, leaving the prisoners to enjoy a luxurious idleness around the prison which themselves helped to raise.

In later years the State Prison South has gained some notoriety from the desperate character of some of its inmates. During the civil war a convict named Harding mutilated in a most horrible manner and ultimately killed one of the jailors named Tesley. In 1874, two prisoners named Kennedy and Applegate, possessing themselves of some arms, and joined by two other convicts named Port and Stanley, made a break for freedom, swept past the guard, Chamberlain, and gained the fields. Chamberlain went in pursuit but had not gone very far when Kennedy turned on his pursuer, fired and killed him instantly. Subsequently three of the prisoners were captured alive and one of them paid the penalty of death, while Kennedy, the murderer of Chamberlain, failing committal for murder, was sent back to his old cell to spend the remainder of his life. Bill Rodifer, better known as "The Hoosier Jack Sheppard," effected his escape in 1875, in the very presence of a large guard, but was recaptured and has since been kept in irons. The sum of \$85,000 was appropriated during 1895-'96 for the maintenance of this establishment.

THE STATE PRISON NORTH.

In 1859 the first steps towards the erection of a prison in the northern part of the State were taken, and by an act of the Legislature approved March 5, this year, authority was given to construct prison buildings at Michigan City, for which purpose \$50,000 were appropriated. A large number of convicts were removed from Jeffersonville and the different Legislatures have from time to time ordered the construction of new cells and improvements in other directions. The Northern prison differs widely from the Southern, inasmuch as its sanitary condition has been above the average of similar institutions. The strictness of its silent system is better enforced. The petty revolutions of its inmates have been very few and insignificant and the number of punishments inflicted comparatively small. From whatever point this prison may be looked at, it will bear a favorable comparison with the largest and best administered of like establishments throughout the world. The disbursements in behalf of this institute in 1895-96, as taken from the records of the State Treasurer, amounted to \$116,898.

FEMALE PRISON AND REFORMATORY.

The prison reform agitation which in this State attained telling proportions in 1869, caused a Legislative measure to be brought forward, which would have a tendency to ameliorate the condition of female convicts. Gov. Baker recommended it to the General Assembly, and the members of that body showed their appreciation of the Governor's philanthropic desire by conferring upon the bill the authority of a statute; and further, appropriated \$50,000 to aid in carrying out the objects of the act. The main provisions contained in the bill may be set forth in the following extracts from the proclamation of the Governor:

"Whenever said institution shall have been proclaimed to be open for the reception of girls in the reformatory department thereof, it shall be lawful for said Board of Managers to receive them into their care and management, and the said reformatory department, girls under the age of 15 years who may be committed to their custody, in either of the following modes, to-wit:

"1. When committed by any judge of a Circuit or Common Pleas Court, either in term time or in vacation, on complaint and due proof by the parent or guardian that by reason of her

incorrigible or vicious conduct she has rendered her control beyond the power of such parent or guardian, and made it manifestly requisite that from regard to the future welfare of such infant, and for the protection of society, she should be placed under such guardianship.

"2. When such infant has been committed by such judge, as aforesaid, upon complaint by any citizen, and due proof of such complaint that such infant is a proper subject of the guardianship of such institution in consequence of her vagrancy or incorrigible or vicious conduct, and that from the moral depravity or otherwise of her parent or guardian in whose custody she may be, such parent or guardian is incapable or unwilling to exercise the proper care or discipline over such incorrigible or vicious infant.

"3. When such infant has been committed by such judge as aforesaid, on complaint and due proof thereof by the township trustee of the township where such infant resides, that such infant is destitute of a suitable home and of adequate means of obtaining an honest living, or that she is in danger of being brought up to lead an idle and immoral life."

In addition to these articles of the bill, a formal section of instruction to the wardens of State prisons was embodied in the act, causing such wardens to report the number of all the female convicts under their charge and prepare to have them transferred to the female reformatory immediately after it was declared to be ready for their reception. After the passage of the act the Governor appointed a Board of Managers, and these gentlemen, securing the services of Isaac Hodgson, caused him to draft a plan of the proposed institution, and further, on his recommendation, asked the people for an appropriation of another \$50,000, which the Legislature granted in February, 1873. The work of construction was then entered upon and carried out so steadily, that on the 6th of September, 1873, the building was declared ready for the reception of its future inmates. Gov. Baker lost no time in proclaiming this fact, and October 4 he caused the wardens of the State prisons to be instructed to transfer all the female convicts in their custody to the new institution which may be said to rest on the advanced intelligence of the age. It is now called the "Indiana Reformatory Institution for Women and Girls."

This building is located immediately north of the deaf and dumb asylum, near the arsenal, at Indianapolis. It is a three-story brick structure in the French style, and shows a frontage of 174 feet, comprising a main building, with lateral and transverse wings. In front of the central portion is the residence of

the superintendent and his associate reformatory officers, while in the rear is the engine house, with all the ways and means for heating the buildings. Enlargements, additions and improvements are still in progress. There is also a school and library in the main building, which are sources of vast good.

October 31, 1879, there were 66 convicts in the "penal" department and 147 in the "girls' reformatory" department. The "ticket-of-leave" system has been adopted, with entire satisfaction, and the conduct of the institution appears to be up with the times. Forty-five thousand dollars were required during the last fiscal year for the maintenance of the institution.

INDIANA HOUSE OF REFUGE.

In 1867 the Legislature appropriated \$50,000 to aid in the formation of an institution to be entitled a house for the correction and reformation of juvenile offenders, and vested with full powers in a Board of Control, the members of which were to be appointed by the Governor, and with the advice and consent of the Senate. This Board assembled at the Governor's house at Indianapolis, April 3, 1867, and elected Charles F. Coffin, as president, and visited Chicago, so that a visit to the reform school there might lead to a fuller knowledge and guide their future proceedings. The House of Refuge at Cincinnati, and the Ohio State Reform school were also visited with this design; and after full consideration of the varied governments of these institutions, the Board resolved to adopt the method known as the "family" system, which divides the inmates into fraternal bodies, or small classes, each class having a separate house, house father and family offices—all under the control of a general superintendent. The system being adopted, the question of a suitable location next presented itself, and proximity to a large city being considered rather detrimental to the welfare of such an institution, Gov. Baker selected the site three-fourths of a mile south of Plainfield, and about fourteen miles from Indianapolis, which, in view of its eligibility and convenience, was fully concurred in by the Board of Control. Therefore, a farm of 225 acres, claiming a fertile soil and a most picturesque situation, and possessing streams of running water, was purchased, and on a plateau in its center a site for the proposed house of refuge was fixed.

The next movement was to decide upon a plan, which ultimately met the approval of the Governor. It favored the erection of one principal building, one house for a reading-room and

hospital, two large mechanical shops and eight family houses. January 1, 1868, three family houses and work-shop were completed; in 1869 the main building, and one additional family house were added; but previous to this, in August, 1867, a Mr. Frank P. Ainsworth and his wife were appointed by the Board, superintendent and matron respectively, and temporary quarters placed at their disposal. In 1869 they of course removed to the new building. This is 64 by 128 feet, and three stories high. In its basement are kitchen, laundry and vegetable cellar. The first floor is devoted to offices, visitors' room, house father and family dining-room and store-rooms. The general superintendent's private apartments, private offices and five dormitories for officers occupy the second floor; while the third floor is given up to the assistant superintendent's apartment, library, chapel and hospital.

The family houses are similar in style, forming rectangular buildings 36 by 58 feet. The basement of each contains a furnace room, a store-room and a large wash-room, which is converted into a play-room during inclement weather. On the first floor of each of these buildings are two rooms for the house father and his family, and a school-room, which is also convertible into a sitting-room for the boys. On the third floor is a family dormitory, a clothes-room and a room for the "elder-brother," who ranks next to the house father. And since the reception of the first boy, from Hendricks county, January 23, 1868, the house plan has proved equally convenient, even as the management has proved efficient.

Other buildings have since been erected, and \$67,000 were appropriated for the maintenance of the institution during last year.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES.

Arthur St. Clair, one of the most noted public characters of our early colonial days, was a native of Scotland, being born at Edinburgh, in 1735. Becoming a surgeon in the British army, he subsequently crossed the Atlantic with his regiment and thenceforward was identified with the history of this country until the day of his death. Serving as a lieutenant with Wolfe in the memorable campaign against Quebec, St. Clair won sufficient reputation to obtain appointment as commander of Fort Ligonier, Pennsylvania, where a large tract of land was granted to him. During the Revolutionary war he espoused the colonial cause, and before its close had risen to the rank of major general. In 1785 he was elected a delegate to the Continental congress, and afterward became its president. After the passage of the ordinance of 1787, St. Clair was appointed first military governor of the Northwest Territory, with headquarters at Fort Washington, now Cincinnati. In 1791 he undertook an expedition against the northwestern Indians, which resulted in the great disaster known in western history as "St. Clair's defeat." On the 4th of November, the Indians surprised and routed his whole force of about 1,400 regulars and militia, in what is now Darke county, Ohio, killing over 900 men and capturing his artillery and camp equipage. General St. Clair held the office of territorial governor until 1802, when he was removed by President Jefferson. He returned to Ligonier, Penn., poor, aged, and infirm. The state granted him an annuity which enabled him to pass the last years of life in comfort. He died near Greenburgh, Penn., August 31st, 1818, leaving a family of one son and three daughters.

William Henry Harrison, first governor of Indiana, and ninth president of the United States, was a native of Virginia, born in the town of Berkeley, Charles City Co., February 9, 1773. His father, Benjamin Harrison, whose signature is affixed to the Declaration of Independence, was a man of note in the early days of Virginia, of which state he was twice elected governor. William Henry Harrison received a classic education at Hampden Sydney college, and subsequently began the

study of medicine, which he soon abandoned to join the military force then being raised to repel the Indian aggression on the frontier. He joined his regiment at Fort Washington, Ohio, was soon appointed lieutenant, and afterward joined the new army under Gen. Anthony Wayne. He was made aid-de-camp to the commanding officer, whom he greatly assisted by his advice concerning an expedition to the Miami, and in 1797, was made captain, and given the command of Fort Washington. While in command of this fort he was married to Anna Symmes, daughter of John Cleves Symmes, the original owner of the land occupied by the city of Cincinnati. In 1798 he resigned his commission and retired to his farm near the Ohio river, from which he was almost immediately recalled by President Madison, who tendered him the position of secretary of the Northwest Territory, by virtue of which he became *ex-officio* lieutenant governor. One year later he was elected delegate to congress, in which body he distinguished himself by the introduction of measures to facilitate the easier acquirement of land by the early settlers. During the session, part of the Northwest Territory was formed into the territory of Indiana including the present states of Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin, and Harrison was made its governor and superintendent of Indian affairs—a deserved compliment to his energy and ability. Resigning his seat in congress, Mr. Harrison at once removed to Vincennes, the territorial capital, and entered upon the duties of his office which he discharged with such signal ability that he was re-appointed successively by Presidents Jefferson and Monroe. He organized the legislature in 1805, and applied himself especially to improving the condition of the Indians, in his relations with whom his powers were most completely shown. He pursued a conciliatory course, held frequent councils with them, and although his life was frequently endangered, he succeeded in averting many outbreaks. In July, 1810, he held his celebrated council with Tecumseh, at Vincennes, in the progress of which a bloody conflict was averted by the coolness and skillful tactics of the general. In the following spring depredations by the savages were frequent, and the governor sent word to the chief that unless they should cease the Indians would be punished. In July, 1811, a second council was held, the result of which promised much for the peace of the settlers, but subsequently being convinced of Tecumseh's insincerity, Gen. Harrison proceeded to establish a military fort near Tippecanoe, an Indian village on the upper Wabash. In September, 1811, Harrison with a force of 900 men, marched from

Vincennes, and after completing Fort Harrison, near the present site of Terre Haute, pressed forward toward the prophet's town, where, on November 7, was fought the murderous battle of Tippecanoe, which resulted in a signal victory for the Americans, and crippled for a time the power of the red men in the territory. In the battle of the Thames, and the defense of Fort Meigs, Harrison, who had been appointed to the command of the northwest army, by President Monroe, distinguished himself, but he resigned before the close of the war in consequence of difference of opinion with the secretary of war. In 1816 he was elected a member of congress, in 1824, United States senator from Ohio, and in 1828, was appointed minister to Columbia, by President Adams. In 1836 he made the race for the presidency in opposition to Martin Van Buren, and was defeated. In 1840 he was triumphantly elected president of the United States, after one of the most animated and exciting campaigns in the history of the country, the effect of which was too much for his strength, and he died within one month after his inauguration, before any distinctive features of his administration could be seen. His death occurred on the 4th day of April, 1841.

Thomas Posey, the last governor of Indiana territory, was born near Alexandria, Va., on the 9th of July, 1750. His educational training was limited, being confined to the branches taught in the different schools of those days. In 1774 he took part in the expedition originated by Governor Dunmore, of Virginia, against the Indians, and was present at the battle of Mt. Pleasant. At the close of this war Mr. Posey went back to his home in Virginia, but did not long pursue his peaceful avocations, being called upon the following year, to take the part of the colonies in their struggle for liberty against the mother country. He participated in the battle of Bemis Heights, as captain in Col. Morgan's command, in 1779 was colonel of the Eleventh Virginia regiment, and afterward commanded a battery under Gen. Wayne. He bore a gallant part in the storming of Stony Point, was at the capitulation of Cornwallis at Yorktown, and continued in the service some time after peace was declared. In 1793, he was appointed brigadier general in the army of the Northwest, and being pleased with the appearance of the country, settled in Kentucky not long after. In that state he was a member of the state senate, being president of the body from November 4, 1805, to November 3, 1806, performing the duties of lieutenant governor at the same time. He removed to Louisiana in 1812, and afterward

represented the state in the senate of the United States. While a resident of Louisiana he was appointed governor of Indiana territory, by President Madison, and in May, 1813, he moved to Vincennes, and entered upon the discharge of his official duties. When his term as governor expired by reason of the admission of Indiana into the Union, Col. Posey was appointed Indian agent for Illinois Territory, with headquarters at Shawneetown, where his death occurred March 19, 1818.

Jonathan Jennings, the first governor of Indiana, was born in Hunterdon county, N. J., in the year 1784. His father, a Presbyterian clergyman, moved to Pennsylvania shortly after Jonathan's birth, in which state the future governor received his early educational training and grew to manhood. He early began training himself for the legal profession, but before his admission to the bar he left Pennsylvania, and located at Jeffersonville, Ind., where he completed his preparatory study of the law, and became a practitioner in the courts of that and other towns in the territory. He was subsequently made clerk of the Territorial legislature, and while discharging the duties of that position, became a candidate for congress, against Thomas Randolph, attorney general of the territory. The contest between the two was exciting and bitter, the principal question at issue being slavery, which Mr. Randolph opposed, while his competitor was a firm believer in the divine right of the institution. Jennings was elected by a small majority. He was re-elected in 1811, over Walter Taylor, and in 1813 was chosen the third time, his competitor in the last race being Judge Sparks, a very worthy and popular man. Early in 1816, Mr. Jennings reported a bill to congress, enabling the people of the territory to take the necessary steps to convert it into a state. Delegates to a convention to form a state constitution were elected in May, 1816, Mr. Jennings being chosen one from the county of Clark. He was honored by being chosen to preside over this convention, and in the election which followed he was elected governor of the new state by a majority of 1,277 votes over his competitor, Gov. Posey. In this office he served six years, also acting as Indian commissioner in 1818 by appointment of President Monroe. At the close of his term as governor he was elected representative in congress, and was chosen for four terms in succession. He was nearly always in public life and filled his places acceptably. He died near Charleston, July 26, 1834.

Ratliff Boon, who became governor of Indiana upon the resignation of Jonathan Jennings, September 12, 1822, was born in

the state of Georgia, January 18, 1781. While he was young his father emigrated to Kentucky, settling in Warren county. Ratliff Boon learned the gunsmith trade in Danville, Ky., and in 1809 came to Indiana and settled on the present site of Boonville, in what is now Warrick county. In the organization of this county he took a prominent part, was elected its first treasurer, in the session of 1816-17 he was a member of the house of representatives, and in 1818 he was elected to the state senate. In 1819 he was elected lieutenant governor on the ticket with Jonathan Jennings, whom he succeeded as stated above. He was re-elected to the office of lieutenant governor in 1822, but resigned that office in 1824, to become a candidate for congress, to which he was elected in August of the same year. He was re-elected in 1829-1831-1833-1835 and in 1837, serving most of the time as chairman of the committee of public lands. In 1836 he was a candidate for United States senator, but was defeated by Oliver H. Smith. His congressional career ended March, 1839, and a few month afterward he removed to Missouri, settling in Pike county. In that state Gov. Boon became active in public affairs, and was one of the leading men of the state. Placing himself in antagonism to Col. Thomas H. Benton, who then controlled the politics of Missouri, he incurred the latter's deadly enmity. He again became a candidate for congress in 1844, but his death on November 20th of that year put an end to his earthly career. Mr. Boon was a pioneer of two states and left the impress of his character upon both.

William Hendricks, governor of Indiana from 1822 to 1825, was born at Ligonier, Westmoreland Co., Penn., in 1783. His parents were Abraham and Ann (Jamison) Hendricks, descendants from old families of New Jersey. William Hendricks was educated at Cannonsburg, Penn., and shortly after his graduation in 1810, went to Cincinnati, Ohio, where he studied law in the office of Mr. Carry, supporting himself in the meantime by teaching school. In 1814 he removed to Indiana, and located at Madison, which continued to be his home during the rest of his life. He began the practice of law at Madison, where he was also identified with journalism for some time, and shortly after his removal to the state he was made secretary of the Territorial legislature at Vincennes. In June, 1816, he was appointed secretary of the constitutional convention, and in August of the same year was elected as the first and sole representative to congress from the newly created state, serving three successive terms. He discharged the duties of

his high position with so much acceptability that at the end of his third term, in 1822, he was elected governor of the state without opposition. Before the expiration of his term as governor, the legislature elected him a senator of the United States, and on February 12, 1825, he filed his resignation as governor. In 1831 he was re-elected, and at the expiration of this term, in 1837, he retired to private life and never afterward took upon himself the cares of public office. In 1849 he was one of the state electors on the Van Buren ticket, and it was during the campaign of that year that he contracted a disease from which he suffered the remainder of his life. Gov. Hendricks was a man of imposing appearance. He was six feet in height, handsome in face and figure, and had a ruddy complexion. He was easy in manner, genial and kind in disposition, and was a man who attracted the attention of all and won the warm friendship of many. He was brought up in the Presbyterian faith, early united with that church, and lived a consistent, earnest, Christian through life. The *Indiana Gazette*, of 1850, has the following mention of him: "Gov. Hendricks was for many years by far the most popular man in the state. He had been its sole representative in congress for six years, elected on each occasion by large majorities, and no member of that body, probably, was more attentive to the interests of the state he represented, or more industrious in arranging all the private or local business intrusted to him. He left no letter unanswered, no public office or document did he fail to visit or examine on request; with personal manners very engaging, he long retained his popularity." He died May 16, 1850.

James Brown Ray, governor of Indiana, was born in Jefferson county, Ky., February 19, 1794. Early in life he went to Cincinnati, Ohio, and after studying law in that city he was admitted to the bar. He began the practice at Brookville, Ind., where he soon ranked among the ablest and most influential of an able and ambitious bar. In 1822 he was elected to the legislature. On the 30th of January, 1824, Lieut. Gov. Ratliff Boon resigned his office, and Mr. Ray was elected president *pro tempore* of the senate, and presided during the remainder of the session. He was governor of the state from 1825 to 1831, and during this time was appointed United States commissioner with Lewis Cass and John Tipton, to negotiate a treaty with the Miami and Pottawatomic Indians. The constitution of the state prevented the governor from holding any office under the United States government, in consequence of which he became involved in a controversy. He remembered

the difficulty Jonathan Jennings had encountered under like circumstances, and sought to avoid trouble by acting without a regular commission, but his precaution did not save him from trouble. Through his exertions the Indians gave land to aid in building a road from Lake Michigan to the Ohio river. Gov. Ray was active in promoting railroad concentration in Indianapolis, and took an active part in the internal improvement of the state. At the expiration of his term of office he resumed the practice of law, and in 1837 was candidate for congress in the Indianapolis district, but was defeated by a large majority. This want of appreciation by the public soured him, and in later years he became very eccentric. In 1848, while at Cincinnati, he was taken with the cholera, which terminated in his death, August 4, of that year. In person, Gov. Ray in his younger days was very prepossessing. He was tall and straight, with a body well proportioned. He wore his hair long and tied in a queue. His forehead was broad and high, and his features denoted intelligence of a high order. For many years he was a leading man of Indiana, and no full history of the state can be written without mention of his name.

Noah Noble, fourth governor of Indiana, was born in Clark county, Va., January 15, 1794. When a small boy he was taken by his parents to Kentucky, in which state he grew to manhood. About the time Indiana was admitted into the Union, Mr. Noble came to the state, and located at Brookville, where a few years later he was elected sheriff of Franklin county. In 1824 he was chosen a representative to the state legislature from Franklin county, in which body he soon became quite popular and gained a state reputation. In 1826 he was appointed receiver of public moneys to succeed his brother Lazarus Noble, who died while moving the office from Brookville to Indianapolis, in which capacity he continued with great acceptability until his removal in 1829, by President Jackson. In 1830 he was appointed one of the commissioners to locate and lay out the Michigan road. In 1831 he was a candidate for governor, and although a whig, and the democracy had a large majority in the state, he was elected by a majority of 2,791. This was remarkable, for Milton Stapp, also a whig, was a candidate and polled 4,422 votes. In 1834 Gov. Noble was a candidate for re-election, when he was also successful, defeating his competitor, James G. Reed, by 7,662 votes. In 1839, after his gubernatorial term had expired, he was elected a member of the board of internal improvements. In 1841 he was chosen a fund commissioner, and the same year was offered by the

president of the United States, the office of general land commissioner, which he declined. Gov. Noble died at his home near Indianapolis February 8, 1844. Gov. Noble had a laudable ambition to go to the United States senate, and in 1836 was a candidate to succeed William Hendricks, but was defeated by Oliver H. Smith. In 1839 he was again a candidate to succeed Gen. John Tipton, but was defeated by Albert S. White on the thirty-sixth ballot. Oliver H. Smith says that Gov. Noble "was one of the most popular men with the masses in the state. His person was tall and slim, and his constitution delicate, his smile winning, his voice feeble, and the pressure of his hand irresistible. He spoke plainly and well, but made no pretence to oratory. As governor he was very popular, and his social entertainments will long be remembered."

David Wallace, governor of Indiana from 1837 to 1840, was a native of Mifflin county, Penn., born April 24, 1799. He removed with his father to Brookville, Ind., when quite young, and in early manhood began the study of law in the office of Miles Eggleston, a distinguished jurist of that day. In 1823 he was admitted to the bar and soon obtained a large practice. He served in the legislature from 1828 to 1830, and in 1831 was elected lieutenant governor of Indiana, and re-elected in 1834. In 1837 he was elected governor over John Dumont, an able and distinguished lawyer, who lived at Vevay, on the southern border of the state. During his periods of service as legislator and lieutenant governor, he was active as an advocate of internal improvements and in establishing a school system, and he was elected governor upon those issues. In 1841 he was elected to congress from the Indianapolis district, defeating Col. Nathan B. Palmer. As a member of the committee on commerce he gave the casting vote in favor of an appropriation to develop Col. S. T. B. Morse's magnetic telegraph, which vote had great weight in defeating him for re-election in 1843. At the expiration of his term in congress he resumed the practice of law, which he continued uninterruptedly until 1850, when he was elected a delegate to the constitutional convention from the county of Marion. In 1856 he was elected judge of the court of common pleas, which position he held until his death on the 4th of September, 1859. Gov. Wallace was twice married. His first wife was a daughter of John Test, and his second a daughter of John H. Sanders. The latter still lives and is prominent in reformatory and religious work. When a young man, Gov. Wallace had a well proportioned body, but in his later years its symmetry was marred by an undue

amount of flesh. He had black hair, dark eyes, and a ruddy complexion. He was cultured and well-bred, his address was good and his manners unexceptionable. He was a laborious and impartial jurist, a painstaking executive, and as an orator had few equals in the nation.

Samuel Bigger, who succeeded David Wallace as governor of Indiana, was born in Warren county, Ohio, March 20, 1802, and was the eldest son of John Bigger, a western pioneer, and for many years a member of the Ohio legislature. He was prepared for college in his own neighborhood, graduated with honors from the University of Athens, and afterward began the study of law. In 1829 he removed to Liberty, Ind., where he was duly admitted to the bar, and soon secured a lucrative practice. He remained at Liberty but a short time, removing thence to Rushville, where his public life began in 1834 as representative of Rush county, in the state legislature. He was re-elected in 1835, and shortly after the expiration of his term was chosen judge of the eastern circuit, a position for which he proved himself ably qualified, and which he held in an acceptable manner for many years. In 1840 he was nominated for governor by the whig state convention, and after an exciting race was elected, defeating Gen. Tilghman A. Howard. ¹⁷ He was a candidate for re-election in 1843, but was defeated by James Whitecomb. After the expiration of his gubernatorial term Gov. Bigger moved to Fort Wayne, Ind., and resumed the practice of law, which he continued until his death, September 9, 1845. "Gov. Bigger possessed talents of a high order, rather substantial than brilliant. His judgment was remarkably sound, dispassionate and discriminating, and it was this chiefly that made him eminently a leader in every circle in which he moved, whether in political life, at the bar, or society at large." He was a man of fine form and presence. He was six feet two inches in height, and weighed 240 pounds. His hair was black, his eyes a blue hazel, and his complexion dark. The expression of his face was kind and benignant, and denoted goodness of heart. He was a patriotic citizen, an incorruptible judge, and an executive officer of very respectable ability.

James Whitecomb was born near Windsor, Vt., December 1, 1795. His father removed to Ohio, and settled near Cincinnati, when James was quite young, and it was there upon a farm that the youthful years of the future governor and senator were passed. He received a classical education at Transylvania uni-

versity, subsequently studied law, and in March, 1822, was admitted to the bar in Lexington, Fayette Co., Ky. Two years later he came to Indiana, and located at Bloomington, where he soon became known as an able advocate and successful practitioner. In 1826 he was appointed prosecuting attorney of his circuit, and in the discharge of the duties of this office, traveled over a large scope of country, and became acquainted with many leading men of the state. In 1820 and 1836 he was elected to the state senate, where he did much to stay the progress of the internal improvement fever which was then at its highest point. In October, 1836, President Jackson appointed Mr. Whitcomb commissioner of the general land office, to which he was re-appointed by President Van Buren, and served as such until the expiration of the latter's term of office. Early in 1841, he returned to Indiana and resumed the practice of law in Terre Haute, where he soon acquired a large and lucrative business. He was at that time one of the best known and most popular members of his party, and at the democratic state convention of 1843, he was nominated for governor of the state. His opponent was Samuel Bigger, whom he defeated by a majority of 2,013 votes. Three years afterward he was re-elected, beating Joseph G. Marshall, the whig candidate, by 3,958 votes. When he became governor he found the state loaded down with debt, upon which no interest had been paid for years, but when he left the office the debt was adjusted and the state's credit restored. He also, by his efforts, created a public sentiment that demanded the establishment of benevolent and reformatory institutions, and he awakened the people to the importance of establishing common schools, and providing a fund for their maintenance. During his term of office he raised five regiments of infantry that represented the state in the war with Mexico. The legislature of 1849 elected Gov. Whitecomb to the senate of the United States, for which high position he was well qualified by talent, by education and by experience. Owing to feeble health he was unable to discharge his senatorial duties as he wished, and he died from a painful disease when he had served little more than half his term. In 1843 he wrote a pamphlet entitled, "Facts for the People," the most effective treatise against protective tariff ever known. As a lawyer, Mr. Whitecomb ranked among the ablest in the country, and as governor will always be remembered as one of the ablest of the distinguished men who have occupied that position. Gov. Whitecomb was compactly and strongly built; he was somewhat above the average size of man; he had a dark complexion and black hair. His features

were good and expressive, and his manners the most elegant. He was a talented and an honest man, and when the roll of Indiana's great men is made up, among the first in the list will be the name of Whitcomb.

Paris C. Dunning was born in Guilford county, N. C., in March, 1806, but emigrated to Indiana with his mother and elder brother, and located at Bloomington in 1823. He studied law and was admitted to practice about 1830. In 1833 he was elected to represent Monroe county in the state legislature, and was three times re-elected. In 1836 he was elected to the state senate from Monroe and Brown counties, and remained there until 1840, when he voluntarily retired. He was chosen as a democratic presidential elector in 1844, and during the campaign exhibited extraordinary energy and ability as a public speaker. In 1846 he was elected lieutenant governor on the democratic ticket, and when Gov. Whitcomb was elected to the United States senate, Mr. Dunning succeeded him as governor. After his retirement in 1850, he practiced his profession for many years, having meantime declined a nomination for congress. In 1860 he was a delegate to the Charleston and Baltimore national conventions, where he distinguished himself as an earnest advocate of the nomination of Stephen A. Douglas, and subsequently worked assiduously for that statesman's election to the presidency. At the breaking out of the rebellion in 1861, Mr. Dunning identified himself with the Union cause, and throughout the war rendered valiant aid to the country. In 1861 he was elected to the state senate without distinction of party. Subsequently he was elected twice as president of the senate. Governor Dunning was twice married, first to Miss Sarah Alexander, and the second time to Mrs. Ellen D. Ashford. Ex-Gov. Dunning takes high rank as one of the self-made men of Indiana, and he filled the many positions of honor and trust conferred upon him with great credit to himself and to the entire satisfaction of the citizens of Indiana.

Joseph A. Wright, for seven years governor of Indiana, was born in Washington, Penn., April 17, 1810. In 1819 his family moved to Bloomington, Ind., where he and his two brothers assisted their father at work in a brickyard, and in the brick business generally. In 1822 his father died and he, then fourteen years of age, having but little if any aid from others, was left to depend entirely upon his own resources. He attended school and college about two years, and while at college was janitor, rang the bell and took care of the buildings. It is said

that what little pocket money he had was made by gathering walnuts and hickory nuts in the fall and selling them to students in the winter. He subsequently studied law with Craven P. Hester, of Bloomington, and began the practice of his profession in 1829, at Rockville, Parke county, where he met with good success from the start. In 1833 he was elected to the state legislature, and in 1840, the year of the Harrison political tornado, was chosen a member of the state senate. He was also elected district attorney for two terms in 1836 and 1837, and later was appointed by President Polk, United States commissioner to Texas. In 1843 he was elected to congress from the Seventh district, over Edward McGaughey, by three majority, and served until Polk was inaugurated March 4, 1845. In 1849 he was elected governor of Indiana, under the old constitution, and in 1852, was re-elected by over 20,000 majority, and served until 1857. In the summer of the latter year he was appointed minister to Prussia, by James Buchanan, and as such served until 1861. In 1862 he was appointed by Gov. Morton United States senator, and sat in the senate until the next January. He was appointed commissioner to the Hamburg exposition in 1863, and in 1865 went again to Prussia as United States minister, and remained there until his death, which occurred at Berlin, March 11, 1867. Gov. Wright will be best remembered as governor of Indiana, his services in the general assembly, senate and congress being too brief for him to make much impression in any of those bodies. As governor he was an important factor in shaping legislation and moulding public opinion. He was an orthodox democrat of the straightest sect, stood high in the councils of his party, and contested with Jesse D. Bright for the leadership, but without success. He was strong with the people but weak with the leaders. In personal appearance Gov. Wright was tall and raw-boned. He had a large head and an unusually high forehead. His hair was light and thin, his eyes blue, and his nose and mouth large and prominent. He was an effective speaker, mainly on account of his earnestness and simplicity. While not the greatest man in the state, he was one of the most influential; and to his honor be it said, his influence was exercised for the public good. Economy and honesty in public life, and morality and religion in private station, had in him an advocate and an exemplar.

Ashbel Parsons Willard was born October 31, 1820, at Vernon, Oneida Co., N. Y., the son of Col. Erastus Willard, at one time sheriff of Oneida county. He pursued his preparatory

studies in the Oneida Liberal Institute, and when eighteen years of age entered Hamilton college in the class of 1842. After graduating from that institution he studied law for some time with Judge Baker, of his native county, and later emigrated to Michigan, locating in the town of Marshall, where he remained for over a year. He then made a trip to Texas on horseback, and on his return stopped at Carrollton, Ky., and there taught school. After this he taught for some time near Louisville, but subsequently left the school room for the political arena. In the contest for the presidency in 1844, between Clay and Polk, young Willard began stumping for the latter, and during the campaign made a speech in New Albany, Ind., which made such a favorable impression that many of the first men of the town solicited him to come and settle among them. He soon afterward located in New Albany, which place remained his home until his death. He at once opened a law office but was compelled to encounter a very able bar, in consequence of which his practice for some time was by no means lucrative. The first office he held was that of common council man. He took pride in the place and won the good opinion of the people irrespective of party. In 1850 he was elected to the state legislature, and from that time until his death he occupied a conspicuous place in the public mind. Such was his career in the legislature that when the democratic convention of 1852 convened the delegates were met by an overwhelming public sentiment demanding the nomination of Willard for lieutenant governor. The demand was recognized and the nomination made. He filled this office until 1856, when he was elected governor, after a very bitter and exciting political contest. In the summer of 1869, his health gave way, and he went to Minnesota in quest of health, which he did not find, but died there on October 4th of that year. Gov. Willard was the first governor of Indiana to die in office. The people, without respect to party, paid homage to his remains, and a general feeling of the most profound sorrow was felt at his untimely taking off. "In person Gov. Willard was very prepossessing. His head and face were cast in finest moulds, his eyes were blue, his hair auburn, and his complexion florid. A more magnetic and attractive man could nowhere be found, and had he lived to the allotted age of mankind he must have reached still higher honors."

Abram Adams Hammond, who succeeded to the governorship on the death of A. P. Willard, by virtue of his office of lieutenant governor, was a native of Vermont, born in the

town of Brattleboro, March 21, 1814. He came to Indiana when six years of age, and was raised near Brookville, where he began the study of law in the office of John Ryman, a lawyer of note in that town. He was admitted to the bar in 1835, moved to Columbus, Bartholomew Co., in 1840, where he was afterward chosen prosecuting attorney, an office which he filled with more than ordinary ability. In 1846 he became a resident of Indianapolis, and the following year removed to Cincinnati, Ohio. He returned to Indianapolis in 1849, and in 1850 was chosen first judge of the common pleas court of Marion county. In 1852 he emigrated to California, and for some time practiced his profession in San Francisco. He soon returned to his adopted state, locating at Terre Haute, where he resided until his election as lieutenant governor in 1852. He made a most excellent presiding officer of the senate, his rulings being so fair and his decisions so just that even his political opponents bestowed encomiums upon him. On the death of Gov. Willard in 1860, Mr. Hammond became governor, and as such served with dignity until the inauguration of Gov. Lane, January, 1861. Governor Hammond was not a showy man, but he was an able one. He possessed an analytic and logical mind, and was remarkably clear in stating his positions when drawing conclusions. When in his prime he was a fine specimen of physical manhood. He was of medium height, compactly built, and of dark complexion. His head was large and well shaped, while the expression of his countenance was kind and gentle. Frank in manners, honorable in his dealings and dignified in deportment, he commanded the esteem of all with whom he came in contact. Although not one of the most learned governors of Indiana, he was by nature one of the ablest.

Conrad Baker, governor of Indiana from 1867 to 1873, was born in Franklin county, Penn., February 12, 1817. He was educated at the Pennsylvania college, Gettysburg, and read law at the office of Stevens and Smyser, and was admitted to the bar in the spring of 1839, at Gettysburg, where he had a lucrative practice for two years. He came to Indiana in 1841, and settled at Evansville, where he practiced his profession until after the commencement of the rebellion. He was elected to the lower house of the general assembly of Indiana in 1845, and served one session, elected judge of the district composed of the counties of Vanderburgh and Warriek, in 1852, in which capacity he served about one year, when he resigned. In 1856 he was nominated for lieutenant governor by the republican party without his knowledge, on the ticket with Oli-

ver P. Morton. They were defeated by Willard and Hammond. In 1861 Mr. Baker was commissioned colonel of the First cavalry regiment of Indiana volunteers, which he organized, and with which he served until September, 1864, in which year he was elected lieutenant governor. In 1865 Gov. Morton convened the general assembly in special session, and immediately after delivering his message, started for Europe in quest of health, leaving Col. Baker in charge of the executive department of the state government. Gov. Morton was absent about five months, during which time the duties of the executive office were performed by Lieut. Gov. Baker. In February, 1867, Gov. Morton was elected to the senate of the United States, in consequence of which the duties of governor devolved upon Mr. Baker. He was unanimously nominated by the republican convention of 1868, for governor, and was elected over Thomas A. Hendricks, by a majority of 961 votes. He served as governor with ability and dignity, until the inauguration of Mr. Hendricks in 1873, since which time he has been engaged in the practice of law in Indianapolis, being a member of one of the strongest and most widely known firms in the state.

Oliver Perry Morton, Indiana's great war governor and United States senator, was born in Saulsbury, Wayne Co., Ind., August 4, 1823. The family name was originally Throckmorton, and was so written by the grandfather, who emigrated from England, about the beginning of the revolutionary war and settled in New Jersey. Gov. Morton's father was James T. Morton, a native of New Jersey, who moved in an early day to Wayne county, Ind., where he married the mother of Oliver P., whose maiden name was Sarah Miller. Of the early life of Gov. Morton but little is known. When a boy he attended the academy of Prof. Hoshour, at Centerville, but owing to the poverty of the family, he was taken from school, and at the age of fifteen, with an older brother, began learning the hatter's trade. After working at his trade a few years, he determined to fit himself for the legal profession, and with this object in view he entered the Miami university in 1843, where he pursued his studies vigorously for a period of two years. While in college he earned the reputation of being the best debater at the institution, and it was here that he developed those powers of ready analysis and argument which made him so celebrated in after life. He began his professional reading in the office of Judge Newman, of Centerville, and after his admission to the bar was not long in rising to an eminent place among the successful lawyers of Indiana. In 1852 he was

elected circuit judge, but resigned at the end of one year and afterward increased his knowledge of the profession by an attendance at a Cincinnati law school. On resuming the practice the number of his friends and legal cases rapidly increased, and his reputation soon extended beyond the limits of his own state. As a lawyer he possessed the faculty of selecting the salient points of a case and getting at the heart of a legal question. His mind was massive and logical, and he could apply great principles to given cases, discard non-essentials and reach decisive points. Mr. Morton's political career was of such a brilliant character that his great achievements in the arena of statesmanship, his wonderful power as an organizer, won for him a recognition from the strongest opponents, and faith in his powers, and the lasting fealty and admiration of thousands of friends until he reached the highest point among the great American statesmen. Up to his thirty-first year, Mr. Morton was a democrat. The county in which he lived was largely whig, thus virtually precluding him from holding elective offices. He was opposed to the extension of slavery, however, and upon the organization of the republican party, he entered the movement, and in 1856 was one of the three delegates from Indiana, to the Pittsburgh convention. His prominence was such that in 1856 he was unanimously nominated by the new party for governor of Indiana, against Ashbel P. Willard, an able and brilliant speaker, the superior of Mr. Morton as an orator, but his inferior as a logician and debater. These two distinguished men canvassed the state together, and drew immense crowds. The speeches of Willard were florid, eloquent and spirit stirring, while Mr. Morton's style was earnest, convincing and forcible. He never appealed to men's passions, but always to their intellect and reason, and whether in attack or defense, proved himself a ready and powerful debater. Although beaten at the polls, he came out of the contest with his popularity increased, and with the reputation of being one of the ablest public men in the state. In 1860 he was nominated for lieutenant governor on the ticket with Hon. Henry S. Lane, with the understanding that if successful he should go to the senate, and Mr. Morton become governor. He made a vigorous canvass, and the result of the election was a republican success, which placed Mr. Lane in the senate, and Mr. Morton in the gubernatorial chair. From the day of his inauguration Mr. Morton gave evidence of possessing extraordinary executive ability. It was while filling this term as governor that he did his best public work and created for himself a fame as lasting as that of his state. A great civil war

was breaking out when he became governor, and few so well comprehended what would be its magnitude as he. He was one of the first to foresee the coming storm of battle, and most active in his preparations to meet it. Perceiving the danger of a dilatory policy, he visited Washington soon after the inauguration of President Lincoln, to advise vigorous action and to give assurance of Indiana's support to such a policy. He commenced preparing for the forthcoming conflict, and when Sumter was fired on, April 12, 1861, he was neither surprised nor appalled. Three days after the attack, President Lincoln called for 75,000 men to put down the rebellion, and the same day Gov. Morton sent him the following telegram:

"INDIANAPOLIS, April 15, 1861.

"TO ABRAHAM LINCOLN, *President of the United States*.—On behalf of the state of Indiana, I tender to you, for the defense of the nation, and to uphold the authority of the government, ten thousand men.

"OLIVER P. MORTON,

"Governor of Indiana."

In seven days from the date of this offer over three times the number of men required to fill Indiana's quota of the president's call, offered their services to the country. Never in the world's history did the people of a state respond more cheerfully and more enthusiastically to the call of duty, than did the people of Indiana in 1861. This record of the state, which Mr. Morton was instrumental in planning, reflects imperishable honor on his name, and from that time forth he was known throughout the nation as the "Great War Governor." During the entire period of the war he performed an incredible amount of labor, counseling the president, encouraging the people, organizing regiments, hurrying troops to the field, forwarding stores, and inspiring all with the enthusiasm of his own earnestness. His labors for the relief of the soldiers, and their dependent and needy families, were held up as matters of emulation by the governors of other states, and the result of his efforts seconded by the people was that during the war over \$300,000 of moneys and supplies were collected and conveyed to Indiana soldiers in camp, field, hospital and prison. The limits of a sketch like this forbid a detailed account of Gov. Morton's public acts. He displayed extraordinary industry and ability, and in his efforts in behalf of the soldier justly earned the title of "The Soldiers' Friend." The legislature of 1862 was not in accord with the political views of Gov. Morton, and it refused to receive his message, and in other ways treated him with want of consideration and respect. It was on the point of taking from him the command of the militia, when the

republican members withdrew, leaving both houses without a quorum. In order to carry on the state government and pay the state bonds he obtained advances from banks and county boards, and appointed a bureau of finance, which for two years made all disbursements of the state, amounting to more than \$1,000,000. During this period he refused to summon the legislature, and the supreme court condemned his arbitrary course, but the people subsequently applauded his action. By assuming great responsibilities he kept the machinery of the state in motion and preserved the financial credit of the commonwealth by securing advances through an eastern banking house to pay the interest on the public debt. In 1864 he was again nominated for governor against Hon. Joseph E. McDonald, whom he defeated by an overwhelming majority. These two distinguished men made a joint canvass of the state, and passed through it with the utmost good feeling. In 1865 Gov. Morton received a partial paralytic stroke, affecting the lower part of his body, so that he never walked afterward without the use of canes. His mind, however, was in no wise affected by the shock, but continued to grow stronger while he lived. In January, 1867, he was elected to the United States senate, and immediately thereafter resigned the governorship to Conrad Baker, who served the remainder of the gubernatorial term. In 1873 he was re-elected to the senate and continued a leading member of that body while he lived. In the senate he ranked among the ablest members, was chairman of the committee on privileges and elections, was the acknowledged leader of the republicans, and for several years exercised a determining influence over the course of the party. He labored zealously to secure the passage of the fifteenth amendment, was active in the impeachment proceedings against Andrew Johnson, and was the trusted adviser of the republicans of the south. In the national republican convention of 1876, he received next to the highest number of ballots for the presidential nomination, and in 1877 was a member of the celebrated electoral commission. In 1870 President Grant offered Senator Morton the English mission, which was declined. After visiting Oregon in the spring of 1877, as chairman of a committee to investigate the election of Senator Grover, of that state, he suffered another stroke of paralysis, which terminated in his death, November 1st, of the same year. The death of no man with the exception of President Lincoln, ever created so much grief in Indiana, as did that of Senator Morton, and he was mourned almost as much throughout the entire nation. On the 17th of the next January, Mr. McDonald offered in the

senate a series of resolutions in relation to Senator Morton's death, which were unanimously adopted. In speaking of these resolutions, Mr. McDonald said: "Naturally combative and aggressive, intensely in earnest in his undertakings, and intolerant in regard to those who differed with him, it is not strange that while he held together his friends and followers with hooks of steel, he caused many whose patriotism and love of country were as sincere and unquestioned as his own, to place themselves in political hostility to him. That Oliver P. Morton was a great man is conceded by all. In regard to his qualities as a statesman men do differ now and always will. But that he was a great partisan leader—the greatest of his day and generation—will hardly be questioned, and his place in that particular field will not, perhaps, be soon supplied." Senator Burnside said: "Morton was a great man. His judgment was good, his power of research was great, his integrity was high, his patriotism was lofty, his love of family and friends unlimited; his courage indomitable." The following is from Senator Edmonds: "He was a man of strong passions and great talents, and as a consequence a devoted partisan. In the field in which his patriotism was exerted it may be said of him as it was of the Knights of St. John in the holy wars, 'In the fore front of every battle was seen his burnished mail and in the gloomy rear of every retreat was heard his voice of constancy and courage.'" The closing speech upon the adoption of the resolutions was made by his successor, D. W. Voorhees, who used the following: "Senator Morton was without doubt a very remarkable man. His force of character cannot be over estimated. His will power was simply tremendous. He threw himself into all his undertakings with that fixedness of purpose and disregard of obstacles which are always the best guarantees of success. This was true of him whether engaged in a lawsuit, organizing troops during the war, conducting a political campaign, or a debate in the senate. The same daring, aggressive policy characterized his conduct every where."

Henry Smith Lane, for two days governor of Indiana, was born February 24, 1811, in Montgomery county, Ky. He secured a good practical education, and at the age of eighteen, commenced the study of law. Soon after attaining his majority, he was admitted to the bar, and in 1835, came to Indiana and located at Crawfordsville where he soon obtained a good legal practice. His winning manners made him very popular with the people, and in 1837, he was elected to represent Mont-

gomery county in the state legislature. In 1840 he was a candidate for congress against Edward A. Hannegan, whom he defeated by 1,500 votes. He was re-elected the next year over John Bryce, and as a national representative, ranked with the ablest of his colleagues. He took an active part in the presidential campaign of 1844, and made a brilliant canvass throughout Indiana for his favorite candidate, Henry Clay. On the breaking out of the Mexican war, Mr. Lane at once organized a company, was chosen captain, and later, became major and lieutenant colonel of the regiment, and followed its fortunes until mustered out of service. In 1858 Col. Lane was elected to the United States senate, but owing to opposition on the part of democratic senators, he did not take his seat. On February 27, 1860, he was nominated by acclamation for governor, and was elected over Hon. Thomas A. Hendricks by a majority of about 10,000 votes. Two days after the delivery of his first message, Gov. Lane was elected to the senate of the United States. He at once resigned the governorship, the shortest term in that office on record in Indiana. In the senate, Mr. Lane did not attain any great distinction, as it was not the place for the exercise of his peculiar talents as an orator, which were better suited to the hustings than to a dignified legislative body. When Col. Lane's senatorial term expired, he returned to his home in Crawfordsville, and never afterward held public office except the appointment of Indian commissioner, by Pres. Grant. He was chosen president of the first national convention that assembled in 1856, and nominated John C. Fremont. It is worthy of note that every nomination ever conferred upon him was by acclamation and without opposition in his party. In person, Col. Lane was tall, slender and somewhat stoop shouldered. His face was thin and wore a kindly expression. In his later days, the long beard he wore was white as snow. He moved quickly, and his bearing was that of a cultured man. He departed this life at his home in Crawfordsville, on the 18th of June, 1881.

Thomas A. Hendricks was the son of Major John Hendricks, and the grandson of Abraham Hendricks, a descendant of the Huguenots, who emigrated to New Jersey and thence to Pennsylvania, prior to the revolution. Abraham Hendricks was a man of remarkable force of character. He was elected to the Pennsylvania assembly first in 1792, and served four terms, the last ending in 1798. William Hendricks, second governor of Indiana, preceded his brother John in moving to this state from Ohio, and had gained much notoriety as a talented and

public man when Major John finally concluded to risk his fortune in the wilds of the new west. John Hendricks, prior to 1829, resided with his family at Zanesville, Ohio. His wife, whose maiden name was Jane Thompson, and a niece, were the only members of the Thompson family who emigrated west, the others remaining in Pennsylvania and other eastern states, where some of them gained enviable reputations in law, medicine, politics and ministry. Shortly after their marriage John Hendricks and wife moved to Muskingum, Ohio, where they lived for some time in a rude log house, one story, one room, one door and two windows, built of round logs and chinked and daubed after the pioneer fashion. In this little domicile were born two sons, Abraham and Thomas A. The last named, Thomas A., was born September 7, 1819. The next year, 1820, lured by the brilliant career of William Hendricks, heretofore spoken of, Major John Hendricks with his little family, removed to Madison, Ind., then the metropolis of the state. Two years later the family removed to Shelby county, at that time a wilderness, and settled on the present site of Shelbyville. Here the father commenced to erect a house and carve a career for their hopeful son, then scarcely three years of age. A dwelling was soon constructed, trees felled, and a farm opened, and the Hendricks house early became a favorite stopping place for all who saw fit to accept its hospitalities. The future vice president received his early educational training in the schools of Shelbyville, and among his first teachers was the wife of Rev. Eliphalet Kent, a lady of excellent culture, fine education, graceful, and nobly consecrated to the Master, to whom Mr. Hendricks was largely indebted for much of his training and success. Having completed his course in the common schools, he entered Hanover college in 1836, where he remained for the greater part of the time until 1841. On leaving college he returned to Shelbyville, and commenced the study of law in the office of Stephen Major, then a young lawyer of brilliant attainments, and considerable tact and experience. In 1843 Mr. Hendricks went to Chambersburg, Penn., where he entered the law school, in which Alexander Thompson was instructor, a man of distinguished ability, extensive learning and much experience as judge of the sixteenth judicial district of that state. After eight months' arduous work in this institution, he returned to Shelbyville, passed an examination, and was the same year admitted to the bar. His first case was before Squire Lee, his opponent being Nathan Powell, a young acquaintance who had opened an office about the same time. The cause was a trivial one, yet the young attorneys worked

hard and with the vim of old practitioners for their respective clients. Mr. Hendricks won, and after complimenting Mr. Powell upon his effort, he gracefully served the apples which had been generously furnished by an enthusiastic spectator. Thus started the young advocate who was destined to become one of the nation's greatest and most beloved statesmen. In 1843 he formed the acquaintance of Miss Eliza Morgan, who was the daughter of a widow, living at North Bend, and two years later, September 26, 1845, the two were united in the bonds of wedlock. So soon as Mr. Hendricks emerged from boyhood his success as a lawyer and public man was assured. Having established an office in Shelbyville, he gained in a short time a fair competence, and soon became one of the leading attorneys of the place. As an advocate he had few equals, and as a safe counsellor none surpassed him at the Shelby county bar. In the year 1848 Mr. Hendricks was nominated for the lower house of the general assembly, was elected after a brilliant canvass, and served his term with marked distinction. In 1850 he was chosen a delegate to the state constitutional convention, in the deliberations of which he took an active part, having served on two very important committees, and won distinction by a brilliant speech upon the resolution relative to the abolition of the grand jury system. The following year was the beginning of Mr. Hendricks' career in national politics. He was nominated for congress at Indianapolis, May 16, 1851, over several other candidates, made a vigorous canvass, and was elected by a decided majority over Col. James P. Rush, the whig candidate. In congress he progressed with signal ability, and was called to act on some of the most important committees, and soon won a national reputation. Scarce had congress adjourned when he was required to make another campaign, for the constitution had transferred the congressional elections to even years, and the month of October. The whig candidate, John H. Bradley, of Indianapolis, was a brilliant man and a public speaker of rare attainments, whom Mr. Hendricks defeated by a largely increased majority. In 1854, when the northern whigs were in a chaotic condition, pro-slavery, anti-slavery, free-soilers, abolitionists, know-nothings and democrats commingling in a storm of confusion a "fusion" state and congressional ticket was formed for the occasion. Opposed to Mr. Hendricks was Lucian Barbour, a talented lawyer of Indianapolis, who exerted himself to combine all the opponents of democracy. Mr. Hendricks made a vigorous and manly contest, but was defeated, after which he retired to his profession and his home, at Shelbyville. In 1855

he was appointed by President Pierce, general land commissioner, in which capacity he served nearly four years, and in 1860 was nominated for governor of Indiana, against Henry S. Lane. After a brilliant and able canvass, during which the two competitors spoke together in nearly every county of the state, defeat again came to Mr. Hendricks. In the same year he moved to Indianapolis, where he lived until his death. In January, 1863, he was elected to the United States senate, which position he held for six years. In 1872 he was again nominated for governor, his opponent being Gen. Thomas Brown, a man of ability and enviable reputation. This campaign was peculiar in one particular. The republicans had infused the crusaders with the idea that they were the salvation of their cause, while the democracy opposed all sumptuary laws. Yet Mr. Hendricks went before the people as a temperance man, opposed to prohibition, but willing to sign any constitutional legislation looking toward the amelioration of crime and the advancement of temperance. He was elected and kept his pledges to the letter. He always kept his pledges inviolate, and ever remained true to his friends. He had a high sense of duty and a spirit of philanthropy pervaded his whole nature. In 1876 he was nominated for the vice presidency on the democratic ticket with Samuel J. Tilden, of New York, and of this election it was claimed they were flagrantly defrauded by returning boards and the electoral commission. In 1880 the name of Thomas A. Hendricks was placed in nomination for the presidency, at Cincinnati, by Indiana, and his nomination was strongly urged in the convention. In 1884 he was a delegate to the Chicago convention, and as chairman of the Indiana delegation, presented in fitting terms and masterly manner, the name of Joseph E. McDonald for the presidency. After the latter had positively refused to accept second place on the ticket, Mr. Hendricks was almost unanimously chosen, and the successful ticket for 1884, the first in twenty-five years, became Grover Cleveland and Thomas A. Hendricks. But few greater calamities ever befell the people than the death of Vice President Hendricks, which occurred on the 25th day of November, 1885, at his home in Indianapolis, of heart disease. Mr. Hendricks was one of the nation's greatest men; deep, broad-minded, diplomatic and above all, a true man. His acts and speeches in congress, both in the house and senate, his defense of what he conceived to be right, his labors for the poor, the oppressed and the wronged of every class in this and other countries, were of great interest to his people and worthy of emulation by all. His devotion to his party, his candor and

honesty of purpose, his noble ambition to serve the people faithfully, his philanthropy and universal love of mankind, all combined to make him one of the noblest of men. Strong in his convictions, yet courteous to opponents. Great in intellect, yet approachable by the humblest of men. High in position, he met every man as his equal. Independent in thought, self-reliant in principle, and rich in pleasant greetings to all whom he met. Though dead he yet lives in the hearts of the people, and his noble characteristics stand out in bold relief as beacon lights to guide and direct generations yet to be.

James D. Williams was born in Pickaway county, Ohio, January 16, 1808, and moved with his parents to Indiana, in 1818, settling near the town of Vincennes, Knox county. He grew to manhood there, and upon the death of his father in 1828, the support of the family devolved on him. He received a limited education in the pioneer log school-house, but, by mingling with the best people in the neighborhood, he obtained a sound practical knowledge of men and things, which, in a great measure, compensated for his early deficiency in literary studies, so that when on reaching his majority, he was unusually well versed for one in his circumstances. He was reared a farmer, and naturally chose agriculture for his life work, and followed it with much more than ordinary success, until the close of his long and useful life. Gov. Williams entered public life in 1839, as justice of the peace, the duties of which he discharged in an eminently satisfactory manner for a period of four years, resigning in 1843. In the latter year he was elected to the lower house of the state legislature, and from that time until his election to the national congress in 1874, he was almost continuously identified with the legislative service of the state. Few men in Indiana have been so long in the public service, and few have been identified with more popular legislative measures than he. It is to him that the widows of Indiana are indebted for the law which allows them to hold, without administration, the estates of their deceased husbands, when they do not exceed \$300 in value. He was the author of the law which distributed the sinking fund among the counties of the state, and to him are the people largely indebted for the establishment of the state board of agriculture, an institution that has done much to foster and develop the agricultural interests of Indiana. He was a delegate to the national democratic convention at Baltimore in 1872, and in 1873 was the democratic nominee for United States senator, against Oliver P. Morton, but the party being in the minority, he was defeated.

He served in the national house of representatives from December, 1875, till December, 1876, when he resigned, having been elected governor in the latter year. The campaign of 1876 was a memorable one, during which the opposition, both speakers and press, ridiculed the democratic nominee for governor, making sport of his homespun clothes and plain appearance, but the democracy seized upon his peculiarities and made them the watchwords of victory. Gov. Williams, or Blue Jeans, as his friends were pleased to call him, was a man of the strictest integrity, and was known as a careful, painstaking executive, entering into the minutest details of his office. He was self-willed and self-reliant, and probably consulted fewer persons about his official duties than any of his predecessors. In personal appearance, Gov. Williams was over six feet high, remarkably straight, had large hands and feet, high cheek bones, long sharp nose, gray eyes, and a well formed head, covered profusely with black hair. He was courteous in his intercourse with others, a good conversationalist, and possessed in a very marked degree, shrewdness and force of character. He died in the year 1880.

Isaac Pusey Gray, one of the most prominent party leaders of Indiana, was born in Chester county, Penn., October 18, 1828. In 1836, he was clerk in a dry goods store in New Madison, Ohio, and afterward became its proprietor. In 1855 he removed to Union City, Ind., where he engaged in business for three years. Like nearly every other successful politician in Indiana, the future Gov. Gray eventually adopted the law as the surest stepping stone to fame and fortune. After a few years of practice, however, the civil war came on and, being an ardent unionist, Mr. Gray accepted a captaincy of the Fourth Indiana cavalry, which position he retained until compelled to retire on account of ill health. Subsequently he recruited the One Hundred and Forty-seventh Indiana Infantry. Originally a whig, Mr. Gray drifted naturally into the republican party after its formation, and was for a long time one of its influential members. Dissatisfied with the administration of Grant, he joined the Greeley liberal movement in 1872, and from that time on, acted with the democrats. The latter received him with open arms and speedily showered upon him their highest honors. He was elected lieutenant governor on the democratic ticket in 1876, and was renominated for the same position in 1880, but was defeated. In 1884 he reached the goal of his ambition, by receiving the democratic nomination for governor, to which position he was triumphantly elect-

ed in the fall of that year. He served with energy and ability for four years, his administration proving so satisfactory to his partisan friends that he became the recognized leader of the democratic party in Indiana. He was that party's choice for vice presidential candidate on the ticket with Grover Cleveland in 1888, and his supporters always insisted that Gray's nomination would have insured Cleveland's election. Previous to that event, his friends urged him for the United States senate in the winter of 1886-'87, and he would, no doubt, have achieved that honor, but for the fact that he occupied the governor's chair, and could not vacate it without giving place to a republican successor, which for party reasons, he was anxious to avoid. Since his retirement from the governorship, Mr. Gray was a busy leader and spokesman for his party in the state, proving to be an exceedingly able organizer, a speaker of more than ordinary ability and an excellent judge of men and their motives. Fully appreciating the valuable services rendered by Mr. Gray, President Cleveland appointed him minister to Mexico, where he represented the United States with a great deal of tact and vigor up to the time of his death, which occurred in 1894 while on his way to Indianapolis. Mr. Gray was a gentleman of a strong personality and a handsome personal presence and courteous address, and when to this is added a natural talent for acquiring and retaining friends, his popularity as a party leader is easily accounted for.

Albert G. Porter.—Among the self-made men of Indiana, none stand higher or have a more noteworthy career than the distinguished gentleman whose name heads this sketch. Albert G. Porter was born in Lawrenceburg, Ind., April 20, 1824. He was graduated at Asbury university in 1843, studied law, was admitted to the bar in 1845, and began to practice in Indianapolis, where he was councilman and corporation attorney. In 1853 he was appointed reporter of the supreme court of Indiana, and was subsequently elected to the same position by a very large majority of the voters of the state. He was elected to congress from the Indianapolis district in 1858, on the republican ticket, overcoming an adverse democratic majority of 800, which he converted into a majority for himself of 1,000. Two years subsequently, he was re-elected by a smaller majority. On March 5, 1878, he was appointed first comptroller of the United States treasury, which position he filled with distinguished ability until called therefrom to become a candidate for governor of Indiana on the republican ticket. He resigned and entered into the campaign of 1880, which will ever be

memorable in the history of the state. After a canvass of remarkable bitterness and excitement, in which every inch of ground was stubbornly contested, Mr. Porter was elected governor by a handsome majority. He held the office from 1881 to 1884, his administration being regarded by friend and foe, alike, as one of the ablest in the history of the state. Mr. Porter has for many years ranked as one of the ablest and most successful lawyers in Indiana, and his "Decisions of the Supreme Court of Indiana" (5 vols., 1853-56), are regarded as among the best of their kind in the state. Besides his talent in politics and law, Mr. Porter enjoys a literary reputation of no mean rank, attained chiefly from his law writings and lectures. He is especially good authority on all matters relating to pioneer history, in the west, and has in preparation a history of Indiana, which will undoubtedly rank as a classic in that line of literature. Mr. Porter occupied the position of United States minister to Rome, which high honor was conferred upon him by his friend, President Harrison.

Alvin P. Hovey.—This gentleman, who was elected governor of Indiana in 1888, has had a notable career, both civil and military. He was born in 1821, in Posey county, Ind., where he has spent his whole life, and he died November 23rd, 1891. After a common school education, he studied law and was admitted to the Mt. Vernon bar in 1843, where he has practiced with success. The civil positions he held previous to the war were those of delegate to the constitutional convention of 1850; judge of the third judicial circuit of Indiana from 1851 to 1854, and judge of the supreme court of Indiana. From 1856 to 1858 he served as United States district attorney for the state. During the civil war he entered the national service as colonel of the Twenty-fourth Indiana volunteers, in July, 1861. He was promoted brigadier-general of volunteers on April 28, 1862, and breveted major-general for meritorious and distinguished services in July, 1864. He was in command of the eastern district of Arkansas in 1863, and of the district of Indiana in 1864-1865. Gen. Grant, in his official reports, awards to Gen. Hovey the honor of the key battle of the Vicksburg campaign, that of Champion's Hill. This is no small praise; also, it is remembered that military critics, in view of the vast consequences that flowed therefrom, have ranked Champion's Hill as one of the five decisive battles of the civil war, and second in importance to Gettysburg alone. Gen. Hovey resigned his commission on October 18, 1865, and was appointed minister to Peru, which office he held until 1870. In

1886 he was nominated for congress by the republicans in the Evansville district, which theretofore had steadily given a large democratic majority. Gen. Hovey's personal popularity and military prestige overcame this, and he was elected by a small majority. In congress, he attracted attention by his earnestness in advocating more liberal pension laws, and every measure for the benefit of the ex-Union soldiers. Largely to this fact was due his nomination for the governorship of Indiana, by the republican party in 1888, the soldier element of the state being a very important factor in securing his nomination, and his subsequent election. In his social relations, Gov. Hovey has always been very popular, and his family circle was considered one of the happiest in the state. Though a strong partisan, he was never abusive or vindictive, and at every trial of strength at the polls, he received strong support from many personal friends in the ranks of the opposite party.

Ira P. Chase, elected lieutenant-governor in 1888 on the same ticket with A. P. Hovey, succeeded the latter, who died November 23d, 1891, and served as governor for the unexpired term. Nominated for governor in 1892 by the republicans of the state, he was defeated by Claude Matthews, the present incumbent.

James Noble was the son of Thomas T. Noble, who moved from Virginia to Kentucky, near the close of the eighteenth century. James Noble grew to manhood in Kentucky, and after his marriage, which was consummated before he had attained his majority, began the study of law in the office of Mr. Southgate, of Covington. After finishing his legal studies and being admitted to the bar, he removed to Brookville, Ind., and commenced the practice of his profession, and soon became known as one of the most successful lawyers and most eloquent advocates of the Whitewater country. When Indiana became a state Mr. Noble represented Franklin county in the constitutional convention, in which he was chairman of the legislative and judiciary committees. In August, 1810, he was elected a member of the first legislature under the state government, which met at Corydon, November, 1816, and adjourned January, 1817. November 8, 1816, the general assembly, by a joint vote, elected James Noble and Waller Taylor to represent Indiana in the senate of the United States. "In the senate Gen. Noble had for associates the ablest men the country has yet produced. He was not dwarfed by their stature, but maintained a respectable standing among them." He re-

remained in the senate until his death, which occurred February 26, 1831. Mr. Noble was a large, well proportioned man of fine address and bearing. He was a good lawyer and as a speaker was very effective before a jury or promiscuous assembly. Personally he was quite popular and his warm heart and generous nature made him the idol of the people of his section of the state.

Waller Taylor, one of the first senators from Indiana, after her admission as a state, was born in Lunenburg county, Va., before 1786, and died there before 1826. He received a common school education, studied law, served one or two terms in the Virginia legislature as a representative from Lunenburg county. In 1805 he settled in Vincennes, Ind., having been appointed a territorial judge. He served as aid-de-camp to Gen. William H. Harrison, at the battle of Tippecanoe, and in the war of 1812-15. On the admission of Indiana as a state he was elected United States senator, and at the close of his term was re-elected, serving from December 12, 1816, until March 3, 1825. He was a man of fine literary attainments, and a prominent political leader of his day.

Robert Hanna was born in Laurens district, S. C., April 6, 1786, and removed with his parents to Indiana in an early day, settling in Brookville as long ago as 1802. He was elected sheriff of the eastern district of Indiana in 1809, and held the position until the organization of the state government. He was afterward appointed register of the land office, and removed to Indianapolis in 1825. In 1831 he was appointed United States senator, to fill the unexpired term caused by the death of James Noble, and served with credit in that capacity from December, of the above year, until January 3, 1832, when his successor took his seat. He was afterward elected a member of the state senate, but suffered a defeat, when making the race for a re-election. He was accidentally killed by a railroad train while walking on the track at Indianapolis, November 19, 1859.

Gen. John Tipton was born in Sevier county, Tenn., August 14, 1786, and was a son of Joshua Tipton, a native of Maryland, a man who possessed great positiveness of character, with keen perceptions and uncommon executive ability. These peculiarities induced him to remove from his native state and settle in a home further west, where he afterward became a leader in the defense of the frontier against the hostile Indians.

He was murdered by the savages on the 18th of April, 1793. Left thus early in life in the midst of a frontier settlement, surrounded by the perils incident thereto, the son inheriting the sagacity and self-reliance of his father, soon began to develop that positive energy of character which distinguished his after life. In the fall of 1807, with his mother and two sisters and a half-brother, he removed to Indiana territory and settled near Bringley's Ferry, on the Ohio river, where he purchased a homestead of fifty acres, which he paid for out of his scanty earnings, making rails at fifty cents a hundred. These early experiences laid the foundation of his future success in life. June, 1809, he enlisted in a company recruited in his neighborhood, which was soon afterward ordered to the frontier for the protection of the settlements. September, 1811, the company entered the campaign which terminated in the battle of Tippecanoe. Early in that memorable engagement all his superior officers were killed, and he was promoted to the captaincy, when the conflict was at its height. Subsequently he rose by regular gradation, to the rank of brigadier general. At the first election under the state constitution, he was chosen sheriff of Harrison county, which position he filled two terms, and in 1819 was elected to represent this county in the state legislature. While a member of that body he served on the committee to select the site for the location of the state capitol, which selection was made in June, 1820, and approved January, 1821. He was re-elected in 1821, and at the following session was chosen one of the commissioners to locate the boundary line between the states of Indiana and Illinois. In March, 1823, he was appointed by President Monroe, general agent for the Pottawatomie and Miami Indians on the upper Wabash and Tippecanoe rivers, and immediately thereafter moved to Ft. Wayne, the seat of the agency. At his instance the agency was removed from Ft. Wayne to Logansport, in the spring of 1828, where he continued to discharge the functions of his trust with fidelity and success. At the session of the legislature, December, 1831, he was elected United States senator from Indiana, to fill the vacancy occasioned by the death of Hon. James Noble, and was re-elected at the session of 1832-33, for a full term of six years. While a member of that distinguished body, he was noted for the soundness of his judgment and the independence of his actions on all questions involving the interests of the state or general government. He opposed the views of President Jackson in reference to the re-charter of the United States bank, and recognized no party in determining the line of duty, always acting from motives of public right.

As a civilian and citizen, he was alike successful in directing and executing to the extent of his power, whatever purpose his conscience approved or his judgment dictated. After locating in Logansport he directed his energies toward the development of the natural resources of that town and surrounding country, and to him more than to any other man is due the credit of supplying the settlements with grist and saw-mills and other improvements, and for taking the initial steps which led to the organization of the Eel River seminary, at that time one of the best known educational institutions of northern Indiana. He was also proprietor of four additions to the town of Logansport, and was interested with Mr. Carter in the plan and location of the original plat thereof. Mr. Tipton was twice married, the first time to a Miss Shields, who died within two years after their marriage. The second time was in April, 1825, to Matilda, daughter of Captain Spier Spencer, who was killed at the battle of Tippecanoe. The second Mrs. Tipton died in the spring of 1839, about the close of her husband's senatorial career. Gen. Tipton closed an honorable life on the morning of April 5, 1839, in the full meridian of his usefulness, and received the last sad honors of his Masonic brethren on Sunday, April 7, 1839.

Oliver Hampton Smith, congressman and senator, was born on Smith's island, near Trenton, N. J., October 23, 1794. He attended school near his home at intervals, until 1813, at which time, owing to the death of his father, he was thrown upon his own resources. He afterward found employment in a woolen mill in Pennsylvania, and on attaining his majority, received \$1,500 from his father's estate, which he soon lost in an unfortunate business investment. Mr. Smith came to Indiana in 1817, and settled at Rising Sun, Ohio county, but in a short time moved to Lawrenceburg, and began the study of law. In March, 1820, he was licensed to practice, and soon afterward removed to Versailles, Ripley county, where he opened an office, but becoming dissatisfied with the location, in a few months he located at Connersville, thence in 1829, moved to the state capital. In August, 1822, he was elected to the legislature from Fayette county, and while a member of that body, served as chairman of the judiciary committee, an important position, and one usually given to the ablest lawyer of the body. In 1824 he was appointed prosecutor of the third judicial district, and in 1826, became a candidate for congress against Hon. John Test, who had represented the district for three full terms. He made a vigorous canvass, and defeated

his popular competitor by 1,500 majority. Mr. Smith served with distinction in congress, and was ever attentive and industrious in his public duties. In December, 1836, he was a candidate for United States senator, his competitors being Noah Noble, William Hendricks and Ratliff Boon. He was elected on the ninth ballot. In the senate Mr. Smith was chairman of the committee on public lands, and took great pride in the place, which he filled with distinguished ability. In 1842 he was a candidate for re-election, but was defeated by Edward A. Hannegan, and in March, 1843, his senatorial services terminated. Soon after his return home, his attention was directed to railroads, and Indianapolis is mainly indebted to him for the building of the Indianapolis & Bellfonte road, now known as the "Bee Line." In 1857 he commenced writing a series of sketches for the *Indianapolis Journal*, on early times in Indiana, which attracted much attention, and which were afterward brought out in book form. This volume is valuable as a record of early Indiana times, and contains much information not otherwise noted. Mr. Smith died March 19, 1859. As a political speaker, he exhibited much the same qualities and powers of mastery that he did as a forensic speaker, but he was less successful on the stump, because argument and close reasoning, which were his mode of dealing with political questions, were not as popular as anecdotal and declamatory style. "As a lawyer, Mr. Smith was ever true to the interest of his client, and in the prosecution of his cases in court, he displayed much zeal and earnestness. He was an honest opponent, and very liberal in his practice, and yet very capable, and sometimes ready to seize upon the weakness or oversight of an adversary. His career at the bar was a successful one, and he well merited the high tribute paid to his memory at the time of his death." "In person, Mr. Smith was five feet ten inches in height and weighed about 180 pounds. He was broad chested, and large from the waist up. The lower part of the body was correspondingly smaller, and when he was subjected to great physical fatigue, it was too weak to bear him up. His eyes were dark, his hair was black and stood up upon his head. He had large shaggy eyebrows and the general contour of his features denoted energy, pluck and endurance. His place is in the front rank of the great men of Indiana."

Albert S. White, one of the most scholarly of Indiana's distinguished men, was born in Blooming Grove, N. Y., October 24, 1803. He graduated from Union college, that state, in 1822, in the same class with Hon. William H. Seward, and after

studying law for some time at Newburg, was licensed to practice his profession in 1825. Soon after this, he came to Indiana and located at Rushville, thence one year later, moved to Paoli and subsequently took up his permanent abode in Lafayette. In 1830 and 1831 he was assistant clerk of the Indiana house of representatives, and served as clerk of the same from 1832 to 1835. In 1833 he was a candidate for congress against Edward A. Hannegan, by whom he was defeated. "He had neither the brilliancy nor the eloquence of Mr. Hannegan, but was the superior of that erratic man in education, culture and in most of the qualities which go to make up the successful man." In 1837 he was more successful, having been elected to congress by an overwhelming majority over Nathan Jackson. The year previous, he was on the whig electoral ticket, and in the electoral college, cast his vote for William Henry Harrison. In 1839 he was elected to succeed Gen. John Tipton, in the United States senate, the struggle having been an animated one, requiring thirty-six ballots divided among Mr. White, Noah Noble and Col. Thomas H. Blake. He entered the senate a young man, but his training eminently fitted him for the duties of that distinguished body, in the deliberations of which he bore an active part. He strenuously opposed the annexation of Texas, as he did every measure which was calculated to extend the area of slavery. "He was of a conservative temperament, and usually voted with the moderate men of his party, but he was conscientiously an anti-slavery man and always acted with those who strove to confine slavery to the territory it then polluted." He was active in securing grants of land, to aid in the extension of the Wabash and Erie canal, and took a prominent part in shaping legislation, to promote other important internal improvements. On the expiration of his term, Mr. White resumed the practice of law, but soon abandoned the profession and entered actively into the business of railroad building. He was president of the Indianapolis & Lafayette railroad, from its organization until 1856, and during a part of that time, was at the head of the Wabash & Western railway. In 1860 he was again called into public life, as a member of congress, where his thorough knowledge of political and state affairs soon enabled him to take high rank. He was made chairman of a select committee, raised to consider the question of compensated emancipation, and also reported a bill appropriating \$180,000,000 to pay loyal men for their slaves, and \$20,000,000 to aid in the colonization of freedmen. His congressional career was eminently honorable, but he failed of a renomination, mainly on account of his action in regard to

the emancipation question. In January, 1864, he was appointed by President Lincoln, United States judge for the district of Indiana, to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Hon. Caleb B. Smith. He soon adapted himself to his new position, and had he lived, would have proven a worthy successor of his eminent predecessor. His term was cut short by his death, which occurred on the 4th day of September, 1864. "Mr. White had but little in common with the typical western pioneer, and it is the more somewhat strange that he should have reached the eminence he did. He never sunk his manhood nor lowered his self-respect, by trying to get down to the level of every man who approached him. He was in no sense a demagogue, and never sought to curry favor by pretending to be what he was not. He was always dignified and always a gentleman." In personal appearance, Mr. White was below the medium height, quite spare and had a narrow visage with a prominent Roman nose. Physically he was weak, but intellectually ranked with the strong men of the state and nation. "He was one of the first men of the Wabash country, and of the state, and his name will not be forgotten while learning and scholarship are cherished and honor and patriotism revered."

Edward A. Hannegan was a native of Ohio, but in early life moved to Kentucky, and settled at Lexington, where he grew to manhood. He received a liberal education, and after several years spent in the study of law, was admitted to practice at the Lexington bar at the early age of twenty-three. Not long after this he settled at Covington, Ind., where he opened an office and practiced his profession with flattering success for a number of years. He soon entered the political arena and ere long was honored by an election to the state legislature, in the deliberations of which he soon took an active and brilliant part. His career in the legislature brought him into prominent notice, and in January, 1833, he was elected to the congress of the United States, defeating Albert S. White, afterward his colleague in the senate. In 1840 he was again a candidate for congress, but after a very exciting contest was defeated by Hon. Henry S. Lane, afterward governor and United States senator. In 1842, much to the surprise of every one, Mr. Hannegan was elected United States senator, defeating Oliver H. Smith and Tilghman A. Howard on the sixth ballot. He took his seat in the senate on the 4th of December, 1843, and served until March 4, 1849, during which time he made several speeches which attracted the attention of the country. While a member of that body his votes were always in accord

with his party. In March, 1849, President Polk nominated him for minister to Prussia, but being unfit for diplomacy by nature and habit it is no wonder that his career at Berlin added nothing to the character of the government he represented. He was recalled the next January, and with that recall the public life of the brilliant but erratic statesman ended. He returned to his home at Covington, and the next year was defeated in a race for the legislature, which he took much to heart and which served to drive him further into the convivial habits which ultimately proved his ruin. The habit of drink continued to grow upon him until in a fit of drunken frenzy he took the life of one whom he dearly loved—his brother-in-law, Capt. Duncan. The two had been drinking deeply, and angry words passed between them. Mr. Hannegan finally went into a separate apartment, but was followed by Capt. Duncan, who applied some bitter epithets to him and slapped him in the face. Upon this Mr. Hannegan seized a dagger and buried it to the hilt in Duncan's body, the effect of which was death the following day. He was not indicted and tried for this killing, the universal sentiment of the people being in his favor. He removed to St. Louis, in 1857, and on the 25th of January, 1859, he died in that city. Mr. Hannegan was warm in his friendships and had a large personal following. His manners were elegant, and he was ardent, impulsive and undaunted, thinking, acting and speaking with the utmost freedom. In person he was below the medium height, firmly and compactly built, but in after years became quite corpulent. He was a charming companion, and as an orator was more eloquent than logical. "He was not a profound man nor a great scholar, but what he lacked in profundity he made up in brilliancy, and his deficiency in scholarship was largely compensated for by his quick wit and fertile imagination, and his power to express himself in the choicest language. He was of Irish descent, and inherited many of the characteristics of that warm-hearted impulsive race."

Jesse D. Bright, for twenty years a leading politician of Indiana, was born in Norwich, N. Y., December 18, 1812, and came to this state when a boy, locating with his parents at Madison, where he grew to manhood's estate. He received an academic education, and after a preparatory course of reading, was admitted to the bar, where his talents soon won for him a conspicuous place among the successful lawyers of Indiana. He was not profound in the philosophy of jurisprudence, but being a fluent speaker and quite popular with the people, he

succeeded in gaining a lucrative practice, which extended throughout the counties of the lower Wabash and elsewhere. He was elected judge of probate in Jefferson county, and subsequently received the appointment of United States marshal for Indiana, and it was while holding the latter office that he laid the foundation of his political career. In the forties, he made the race for the state senate, against Williamson Dunn and Shadrack Wilber, whom he defeated, and in that body was soon recognized as the leader of the party. In fact, he was a born leader of men, and always stood at the fore-front of the line. In 1843 he was lieutenant governor on the ticket with James Whitecomb, and such was the ability he displayed in the discharge of the duties of that position, that the senators and representatives, with all of whom he sustained relations of the warmest friendship, afterward elected him to the senate of the United States. At this time he was barely eligible to a seat in the senate, on account of his age, being the youngest man ever elected to that distinguished body. In 1850, he was a candidate for re-election against Hon. Robert Dale Owen, who subsequently withdrew from the contest, thus making Mr. Bright's election without opposition. In 1856, his term having expired, he again sought re-election which was granted him after a memorable contest which was decided by the United States senate in a strictly party vote. In the senate, Mr. Bright ranked high as a committee worker, and enjoyed great personal popularity. Such was his standing that on the death of Vice-President King in 1853, he was elected president pro tempore of the senate, which he filled with ability until the inauguration of John C. Breckenridge, in 1857. In the latter year, when forming his cabinet, President Buchanan offered Mr. Bright the secretaryship of state, which position he saw fit to decline. He continued a senator until 1862, when he was expelled for disloyalty, by a vote of thirty-two to fourteen. The principal proof of his crime was in recommending to Jefferson Davis, in March, 1861, Thomas Lincoln, of Texas, a person desirous of furnishing arms to the confederacy. Mr. Bright organized and led the Breckenridge party in Indiana in 1860, and in stumping for the brilliant young Kentuckian gave the movement all the force and vitality it had in this state. He left Indiana soon after the legislature of 1863 refused to return him to the United States senate, and took up his residence in Kentucky, in the legislature of which state, he subsequently served two terms. In 1874, he removed to Baltimore, in which city he died on the 20th of May, 1875, of organic disease of the heart. Mr. Bright had a splendid physique, and weighed about 200

pounds. He had a good head and a good face, but was imperious in manner and brooked no opposition from either friend or foe. "He was the Danton of Indiana democracy, and was both loved and feared by his followers."

John Pettit was born at Sackett's Harbor, N. Y., July 24, 1807, and died in Lafayette, Ind., June 17, 1877. After receiving a classical education and studying law, he was admitted to the bar in 1838, and commenced the practice of his profession at Lafayette, Ind. He soon became active in state politics, was in the legislature two terms and served as United States district attorney. He was elected to congress as a democrat in 1842, re-elected to the next congress and served with distinguished ability in that body from December 4, 1843, to March 3, 1849. He was a democratic elector in 1852, and in January, 1853, was chosen United States senator to fill the unexpired term, occasioned by the death of James Whitcomb, serving as such until March 3, 1855, during which time he earned the reputation of an able and painstaking legislator. In 1859 he was appointed by James Buchanan, chief justice of Kansas, and in 1870 was elected supreme judge of Indiana. He was a delegate to the Chicago democratic convention in 1864, and as a political leader, wielded a strong influence in Indiana in a number of state and national contests. He was renominated for supreme judge in 1876, but owing to scandals connected with the court, which excited popular indignation, he was forced off the ticket and the name of Judge Perkins substituted.

Charles W. Cathcart, of whose public and private history but little is now known, was born on the island of Madeira, in 1809. He received a liberal education and early in life shipped as a sailor, and after a number of years spent on the sea, located in 1831, at La Porte, Ind., where he engaged in farming. He served several years as land surveyor, was a representative in the legislature, and in 1845, was an elector on the democratic ticket. He was elected to the congress of the United States in 1845-47, re-elected the latter year to serve until 1849, and was afterward appointed to the United States senate to fill the unexpired term occasioned by the death of James Whitcomb. He served as senator from December 6, 1852, to March 3, 1853, and at the expiration of his term returned to La Porte county, where his death subsequently occurred.

Graham N. Fitch was born in LeRoy, Genessee county, N. Y., on the 5th of December, 1810, and is said to have been the first

white child born in that town. His grandfather was a soldier in the revolutionary war, and his father, a soldier in the war of 1812, was wounded at the battle of Queenstown. Mr. Fitch received a liberal education, and in early life, chose the medical profession for a life work, and completed a course of study in the same in the College of Physicians and Surgeons of western New York. He came to Indiana in 1834, and settled at Logansport, where his successful professional career soon won for him the reputation of one of the most skillful surgeons and thorough practitioners in the west. In 1844 he accepted a professorship in Rush Medical college, at Chicago, and occupied the chair of theory and practice during the years 1844-1847. Though not naturally a politician, Dr. Fitch, from force of circumstances, was drawn into the arena of politics, where his commanding talents and energy marked him as the people's choice. In 1836 and again in 1839, he was chosen to represent Cass county in the state legislature. Subsequently at the election in August, 1847, he was chosen to represent his district in the lower house of congress, holding that responsible position until 1852. During his membership he was active and efficient in the discharge of his duties, earning the reputation of a good legislator. His legislative capacity was further tested by an experience in the senate of the United States, commencing in 1860-'61. The honorable distinction acquired in subordinate legislative positions was not dimmed by his senatorial experience, and he left that distinguished body with a record of which posterity need not be ashamed. Although a democrat in political affiliations, he always esteemed principles above mere partisanship and was not slow to manifest disapprobation when his party seemed disposed to pursue a course of policy in antagonism to his better judgment. In the triangular contest for the presidency between Mr. Lincoln, Mr. Douglas and Mr. Breckenridge, he gave his undivided support to the last named gentleman, influenced thereto by a belief that his election would prevent the threatening civil war. Again when his party rallied to the support of Mr. Greeley, he manifested his dissent by supporting Mr. O'Connor for the presidency. When the war came on, he raised a regiment, the Forty-sixth Indiana, and at its head entered the federal service. He did brilliant service in several campaigns, but owing to an injury received by the falling of his horse, was compelled to leave the service before the expiration of the war. Since the close of the war, he has continued to practice his profession, not interfering in political affairs except to preserve the integrity of his inherent ideas with the vigor of his palmier days, opposing

whatever he conceives to be wrong in civil and political affairs. In personal appearance, Dr. Fitch is a remarkable specimen of physical manhood, having a well knit frame and a courtly dignity which bespeaks the polished gentleman. In his prime he appeared a knight among men, and while a member of the United States senate, is said to have been the finest looking man of that body.

David Turpie was born in Hamilton county, Ohio, in 1829, graduated at Kenyon college, studied law, and began practice at Logansport, Ind., in 1849. He was a member of the legislature in 1852, was appointed judge of the court of common pleas in 1854, and of the circuit court in 1856, which post he resigned. He was again a member of the state house of representatives in 1856, and was elected to the United States senate from Indiana, as a democrat, in place of Jesse D. Bright, who had been expelled, serving from January 22, to March 3, 1863. Nearly twenty-four years afterward he was again called on by his party to represent them in the senate, to which body he was elected by the Indiana legislature, at the session of 1886-7, after a memorable struggle. His opponent was Benjamin Harrison, afterward elected president, and he was defeated by the votes of one or two independents in the legislature, who held the balance of power between the two great parties, which were almost equally divided in voting strength among the members. Mr. Turpie enjoys the reputation of being one of the ablest constitutional lawyers in Indiana, and is also graded high as a man of literary attainments.

Daniel D. Pratt was born at Palermo, Maine, October 24, 1813, and died at Logansport, Ind., June 17, 1877. His father was a physician and the son of David Pratt, a revolutionary soldier, of Berkshire county, Massachusetts. Mr. Pratt's early years were years of excessive toil, necessitated by the circumstances of his father's family. His early education was acquired in the district schools of Madison county, N. Y., and in 1825 he entered the seminary at Cazenovia, that state, and two years later entered Hamilton college, from which he graduated in 1831. He was a natural orator, and as a classical scholar was rarely excelled. Immediately after graduating he accepted a professorship in Madison university, and with the means thus earned began the study of law. In the spring of 1832, he decided to move west. Accordingly he set out for Cincinnati, making a part of the journey on foot, and later made his way to Rising Sun, Ind., where he taught a term of school. Subse-

quently he entered the law office of Calvin Fletcher, at Indianapolis, and in 1836 located in Logansport, at that time a mere opening in the wilderness. The bright promises of his early youth were soon fully realized, for no sooner was he admitted to the bar than he rapidly rose in his profession, and in a few years the fame of the eloquent young advocate resounded throughout northern Indiana. He was one who never courted notoriety, but he made himself a necessity in the field of action, and it was often a race between litigants to see who could reach his office first. At the time of his election to the United States senate in 1869, he was recognized as the ablest lawyer in northern Indiana, and his fame was not confined to this state alone, but extended throughout the western country. For twenty-five years he was without a rival in northern Indiana, before a jury. Gov. Hendricks and Secretary Thompson divided the palm with him in the south and west parts of the state. His eminent merits were recognized, and in 1847 he was nominated for congress, but was defeated by Charles Cathcart. In 1848, he was one of the presidential electors, and in 1851-53 was elected to the legislature, and soon became the leader in the house. In 1860 he was secretary of the national convention at Chicago, which nominated Abraham Lincoln for the presidency, and attracted great attention by his eloquence and commanding presence. During the war Mr. Pratt was a zealous and patriotic advocate of the Union cause. In 1863 he received the unanimous vote of his party, then in the minority, for United States senator, and in 1868 was elected to congress by a handsome majority. In 1868 the legislature without solicitation on his part, promoted him to the United States senate. It was unfortunate that he entered that body so late in life, as he was then fifty-six years of age, and with the exception of two terms in the state legislature was without public training. The artificial restraints thrown around him in the national capital disgusted him, and interfered with his splendid oratorical powers. As it was, however, he was recognized as one of the ablest men of that body during the period of his service, and although he made but few speeches, those he delivered were sound, logical and comprehensive. For six years he was a member of both claim and pension committees, and for two years was chairman of the pension committee. Millions of dollars were allowed and disallowed on his recommendation. So conscientious was he that Wendell Phillips once remarked that "Pratt is the most absolutely honest man I ever knew." Upon the expiration of his term as senator, at the solicitation of President Grant, he took charge of the internal revenue de-

partment. In 1876, the republicans urged Mr. Pratt to become a candidate for governor of the state, but he declined. Personally Mr. Pratt was one of the most cheerful and genial of men, and in his social life, and in all his associations, shed an influence around him which was like sunshine. Although he never sought literary honors, his talents could not pass unappreciated, and in 1872 Hamilton college conferred upon him the honorary degree of LL. D. In appearance he was above the average height, being over six feet, and correspondingly portly. His presence was dignified and he moved among men as one born to command. In his death the nation lost one of its faithful public servants, the state a great man, the legal profession one of its ablest members and the community one of its best citizens.

Joseph E. McDonald was born in Butler county, Ohio, August 29, 1819, the son of John McDonald, a native of Pennsylvania, and of Scotch descent. Maternally, Mr. McDonald is descended from French Huguenot ancestry. His mother, Eleanor (Piatt) McDonald, was a native of Pennsylvania and a woman of superior order of intellect. Seven years after the death of John McDonald, she married John Kerr, who moved with his family to Montgomery county, Ind., in the fall of 1826. Joseph McDonald was seven years of age when the family moved to Indiana, and until his twelfth year he lived upon the home farm. In his twelfth year he became an apprentice at the saddler's trade in Lafayette, in which capacity he served over five years, studying law in the meantime, for which he early manifested a decided taste. At the age of eighteen he entered Wabash college, began the study of the higher branches, supporting himself mainly by plying his trade when it was possible for him to do so. He afterward became a student in the Asbury university, and in 1842 began the systematic study of law at Lafayette, Ind., in the office of Zebulon Beard, one of the leading lawyers of the state. He was nominated for the office of prosecuting attorney before his admission to the bar, and was elected to that position over one of the prominent lawyers of Lafayette. He was re-elected prosecutor, and discharged the duties of that office for a period of four years. In the fall of 1847, he moved to Crawfordsville, which place was his home until 1859. In 1849 he was elected from the old eighth district, to the twenty-first congress, and served one term, and in 1856 was elected attorney general of Indiana, being the first chosen to this office by the people. He was re-elected in 1858, and served two terms. In 1864 he was nominated for

governor of Indiana by the democratic state convention, and made a joint canvass with Oliver P. Morton, the republican nominee. At the election he received 6,000 more votes for governor than the state ticket did in 1862, but Mr. Morton was elected by nearly 20,000 votes. Throughout his entire life he has strictly adhered to his resolution to follow the law and make a success of the profession, and as a lawyer he has for years ranked among the most successful and profound in the nation. He was elected to the United States senate for six years, to succeed David D. Pratt, and entered upon the duties of that position March 5, 1875. While a member of that body he was chairman of the committee on public lands, a member of the judiciary committee, took a conspicuous part in the debates on finance, and ranked as one of the ablest lawyers in that body of distinguished men. He served with distinction until 1881, since which time he has given his attention principally to the practice of his profession, though taking an active part in political affairs, being one of the recognized leaders of the democracy in the United States. He made the principal argument for the objectors in the count of the electoral vote of Louisiana before the electoral commission appointed to determine the result of the presidential election in 1876. In the national democratic convention, held in Chicago, in 1884, Mr. McDonald's name was presented as a candidate for the presidential nomination, and he had a strong following in the delegations from other states. He was always a representative democrat of the Jeffersonian school, and believed that the true idea of democracy is to preserve unimpaired, all the rights reserved to the states respectively, and to the people, without infringing upon any of the powers delegated to the general government by the constitution. "He believes in the virtue of the people, and in their ability and purpose to maintain their institutions inviolate against the assaults of designing men." "As an orator, both at the bar and on the hustings, he is cool, logical and forcible, and as a citizen, he has the confidence and respect of all who know him, regardless of political creeds." "His views are broad and comprehensive on all questions of public interest, and his steadfastness of purpose, his honest desire of accomplishing what is best for the people, have given him a home in their hearts and won for him the greatest honors they had to bestow."

Daniel W. Voorhees was born in Butler county, Ohio, September 26, 1827, and was brought to Indiana by his parents when two months old. The family settled in Fountain county,

where Mr. Voorhees grew to manhood on a farm about ten miles from the town of Covington. His father, Stephen Voorhees, was a native of Mercer county, Ky., and a descendant of an old Holland family, many representatives of which were early settlers of the eastern states in the time of the colonies. His mother was Rachel (Elliot) Voorhees, born in Maryland of Irish ancestry, and married Stephen Voorhees in the year 1821. The early farm experience of Mr. Voorhees proved of great value to him in after life, and served to bind him in ties of sympathy with the common people. He graduated from the Asbury, now DePauw, university, at Greencastle, in 1849, and soon afterward entered the law office of Lane and Wilson, Crawfordsville, and on his admission to the bar, began the practice of his profession at Covington, Fountain county, where he soon effected a co-partnership with Hon. E. A. Hannegan, in 1852. In June, 1853, Mr. Voorhees was appointed by Gov. Wright, prosecuting attorney of the circuit court, in which position he soon established a fine reputation as a criminal lawyer. In 1856 he was nominated by acclamation, democratic candidate for congress, but was defeated by 230 majority in a district previously republican, by 2,600. In 1857 he removed to Terre Haute, and the following year was appointed United States district attorney for the state of Indiana, by President Buchanan. He was elected to congress in 1860 and 1862, and in 1864 was again a successful candidate, but in the last election his majority of 634 votes was contested by his competitor, Henry D. Washburn, who obtained the seat. He was again elected in 1868, re-elected in 1870, but in 1872 was defeated by Hon. Morton C. Hunter. In 1859 Mr. Voorhees was retained as counsel to defend Col. Cook, who was arrested with John Brown, as an accomplice of the latter in the celebrated Harper's Ferry raid, and his speech at the trial was one of the greatest ever delivered before an American jury, and it gained him a national reputation. It was listened to with rapt attention by a vast audience, and was afterward published all over the country, and in Europe in different languages. Mr. Voorhees was appointed November 6, 1877, to succeed Gov. Morton in the United States senate, and has served by successive re-elections in that distinguished body until the present time. From his entrance into public life he has occupied a conspicuous place in the eyes of the public, and at the bar, on the stump or in the halls of national legislation, he has been a man of mark. His powers as a parliamentary orator and a statesman are a portion of the history of the nation, and as a party leader few if any have exercised as great an influence

upon the people of Indiana as he. "From the sobriquet of the Tall Sycamore of the Wabash, so often applied to him, it will be inferred that he is of tall stature, which is the case, as he is over six feet in height and weighs over 200 pounds. He carries himself erect, and his commanding presence and dignified bearing make him a conspicuous figure in the senate chamber." During his term of service in the senate he has been assiduous in his attention to the public needs. He is always present and allows no measure of his political opponents to pass without the severest scrutiny, and with him vigilance is the price of liberty.

Benjamin Harrison, one of the ablest and most successful of Indiana's party leaders, and the only one that has succeeded in reaching the presidency, was born in North Bend, Ohio, August 20, 1833. His father was John Scott, brother of President William Henry Harrison. The future senator and president was graduated at Miami university, Ohio, in 1852, studied law, and in 1854 removed to Indianapolis, where he has since resided. In 1862 he entered the army as a second lieutenant of volunteers. After a short service he organized a company of the Seventieth Indiana regiment, was commissioned colonel on the completion of the regiment, and served through the war, receiving the brevet of brigadier-general of volunteers on January 23, 1865. He then returned to Indianapolis and resumed his office of supreme court reporter, to which he had been re-elected during his absence, in 1864. In 1876, Godlove S. Orin, the republican nominee for governor of Indiana, was compelled to withdraw from the race on account of his connection with what was known as the "Venezuela claims," and the nomination was unanimously offered to Gen. Harrison. He accepted reluctantly, made a gallant race against heavy odds, but was defeated by "Blue Jeans" Williams by a small plurality. The republicans obtaining a majority in the legislature in 1880, Gen. Harrison was unanimously nominated and elected by his party to the United States senate, in which body he served from March 4, 1881, until March 4, 1887. He was defeated for re-election after a bitter struggle, by a majority of two votes on joint ballot in the legislature, and to this circumstance, was largely due his subsequent nomination for the presidency. At the national republican convention held in Chicago in June, 1888, after a protracted and exciting struggle, the great prize was awarded to the Indiana politician and soldier, over a host of distinguished competitors. At the subsequent election in November of that year, Gen. Harrison was successful over his

competitor, Grover Cleveland, and was inaugurated president of the United States on the 4th of March, 1889.

Dr. David J. Jordan.—The above named gentleman is one of the most prominent of that coterie of scientific writers who have done so much to attract attention to the physical resources of Indiana. For many years Prof. Jordan has been president of the state university. He was educated at Cornell university, and afterward studied biology under the famous Agassiz, in his celebrated summer school on Penikese island. Coming west Prof. Jordan taught his specialty in the university of Wisconsin, Indianapolis high school, Butler university and finally the Indiana university, of which his talents eventually made him president. Prof. Jordan devoted most of his attention for many years to the study of the habits and classification of the fishes of North America. On this subject he has published over 200 papers, besides a large work which has become a standard authority on ichthyology. In enthusiastic pursuit of his favorite study, Dr. Jordan made a fine and extensive collection of nearly ten thousand specimens of fishes, reptiles and birds, but unfortunately these were all destroyed by a disastrous fire in 1883. With characteristic energy he set to work to repair the damage, and soon had a better collection than ever. He has been a voluminous writer on scientific subjects; the greater part being devoted to his specialty, the fishes of the western states. He has gathered around him at Bloomington, a school of students who have grown up under his care, imbibed his tastes, and greatly assisted him in his scientific researches. The result of their conjoint labors and writings has been to make the state university the center and authority on subjects relating to biological work.

Prof. John Collett, the most distinguished of Indiana geologists, is a native of this state, having been born in Vermillion county in 1828 and graduated at Wabash college in 1847. He has taken an active part in politics, having been state senator, state house commissioner, state statistician and state geologist. But his chief fame and his chief claim upon the gratitude of his state, are based upon his work as a scientist. Prof. Collett's life has been studious, useful and laborious. He has devoted most of his time to the study of the geology of Indiana, and has done more than any other person to make known the natural resources of the state, especially to advertise to the world the value of its coal measures and stone quarries. Chiefly through his efforts, the building stone of Indiana has

been introduced to commerce, and is now used extensively for the construction of public buildings in all parts of the Union. He proved its superiority by a series of tests. From 1880 to 1884, he was state geologist, and for many years previously, had served as an assistant in that office, to which he contributed his most earnest labor and the riches of his well stored mind. In 1884, he published the first and best geological map of the state ever issued, and has written voluminously on all subjects relating to the geology of the state. There is not a county he has not visited and studied, nor one with whose geological history, dating far back into the dim twilight of the prehistoric periods, he is not so familiar as to be able to trace and read like an open book. Prof. Collett belongs to that useful class of citizens which, while not obtaining the passing applause and glittering fame that is conferred upon the politician in high office, confer more lasting benefits upon mankind, and are of more actual value to a state than all its politicians put together. Indiana needs more John Colletts and fewer "statesmen" of the Col. Mulberry Sellers and Senator Dillworthy type.

Maurice Thompson.—There is no more picturesque personality in the Hoosier state than the poet, naturalist, essayist, story writer and publicist, whose name heads this sketch. A native of the south, he possesses all the frankness, ardor, geniality of disposition and fervent feelings so characteristic of the warm latitudes. His home, however, since the war has been in Indiana, with whose institutions and people he has become thoroughly identified. Mr. Thompson's tastes are literary, and his occupation and fame lie in that direction, but occasionally he takes an excursive flight into politics, more by way of diversion than otherwise. He has served one or two terms as member of the lower house of the legislature, and one term also as state geologist by appointment of Gov. Gray. He prefers, however, to wander over the fields and woodlands, watching the habits of birds, and studying nature in all her varying moods. On these subjects he writes most entertainingly in stories, in poems, and in magazine essays. He is a born naturalist and is never so happy as when studying the interesting flora and fauna of his adopted state. He views nature with the eye of an artist, and describes her charms with the heart of a poet. One of his books covering these subjects, entitled "Sylvan Secrets," is as charming as an Arabian tale. "The Red-head Family" is a bird sketch of the most delightful description, in which the imaginings of a poet, and the word painting of an artist are mingled with, and give color to, orni-

thological information of the most exact kind because gathered by a student of nature in actual contact with what he describes. Bird song, nest building, bird anatomy, the loves, hates, trials and habits of the songsters of the grove, are themes which this poet-naturalist has enriched with the appreciation of a Thoreau, and the descriptive powers of a Goldsmith. One of his articles, a gem of its kind, describes the habits of the mocking-bird in his native southern haunts. Mr. Thompson says, what is not generally known, that the mocker sometimes sings as it flies, after the manner of the skylark, and he dwells at length, on one of these "descending songs," which the mocker poured forth as he flattered on ecstatic wing from branch to branch, and finally by slow degrees, to the earth where he fell exhausted with the efforts to produce his own exquisite melody. Mr. Thompson is a voluminous magazine writer and covers a wide variety of topics with unflagging ability. He is a conspicuous member of that galaxy of literary stars who have shed such lustre upon Indiana since the war period, and contributed so much to give her high rank in the world of letters.

James Whitcomb Riley.—Some fifteen or twenty years ago, there commenced to appear in various papers of Indiana, poems in dialect, relating to homely phases of human life and touching on those domestic topics that are common to every fireside. At first they only attracted the attention of a few, but by degrees, their fame spread as they were more and more appreciated, and people began to enquire the author of such pieces as "The Old Swimmin' Hole," "When the Frost is on the Pumpkin and the Fodder's in the Shock," "The Flying Islands" and other gems, the characteristics of which were a gentle humor, always accompanied by a rich vein of tenderest pathos. Usually these poems purported to be written by "Mr. Johnson, of Boone," or some other bucolic individual unknown to fame. Most of them were published in the various newspapers edited by the late George C. Harding, himself a universal genius of the first water, and always in sympathy with rising literary talent which he did more than any other newspaper proprietor of the state, to foster and develop. By degrees it leaked out that the author of the popular dialect poems was none other than James Whitcomb Riley, a young man of Hancock county, who from the rude life of a farmer boy, found himself drifting irresistibly into rhyme, like the noted Mr. Wegg. In the course of time, Mr. Riley's fugitive pieces were collected and published in a volume, which was succeeded at intervals, by others of a similar tenor, all of which were warmly welcomed and

generally read by lovers of that kind of verse which deals with lowly human nature, and as it comes from the heart of the writer, goes directly to the hearts of the readers. Soon Mr. Riley had a state reputation, and was welcomed everywhere with affection as the typical "Hoosier Poet." It was not until the national meeting of authors in New York, in the winter of 1886-'87, that Riley's fame spread across the state lines and extended to boundaries that are touched by the two great oceans. The select critics of literature in the east fell easy victims to his genial personal address and platform ability, and when the meeting adjourned, Mr. Riley was by general consent, placed high up on the temple of fame, alongside of the most popular American poets. After that, he figured conspicuously on the lecture platform, as a reciter of his poems, and has been much sought after for concert and lyceum work. Mr. Riley is a distinctive Hoosier product and his poems are rich with the flavor of the soil from which their author sprang. He has done much to give Indiana high rank in the literary world, and for this, as well as for the intrinsic merits of his compositions, enjoys a warm place in the hearts of his fellow citizens of the Hoosier state.

Lewis Wallace.—Though a soldier of distinction in two wars, it is not as a military man that Gen. Wallace has achieved his principal fame. It has been rather with the pen than the sword he has conquered, and no Indianian has carved his name so high on the literary temple as the distinguished subject of this sketch. A son of Gov. David Wallace, he was born in Brookville, Ind., April 10, 1827. He received a common school education and was studying law when the Mexican war roused him from his reveries. He served in that war with credit as a first lieutenant, and at its close resumed his profession in the cities of Covington and Crawfordsville, Ind. He served a term of four years in the state senate, but never took kindly to politics. At the breaking out of the civil war, he was appointed adjutant general of Indiana, soon after becoming colonel of the Eleventh Indiana volunteers, with which he served in West Virginia, participating in the capture of Romney and the ejection of the enemy from Harper's Ferry. He became a brigadier-general of volunteers, in the fall of 1861, led a division at the capture of Fort Donelson, and displayed such ability as to receive a major-general's commission in the following spring. He participated conspicuously in the fated field of Shiloh. In 1864 he was assigned to the command of the middle department, with headquarters at Baltimore, Md., with 5,800 men.

He marched to the banks of the Monocacy, and there offered battle to the overwhelming forces of Gen. Jubal A. Early, who, with 28,000 men, was marching triumphantly upon the national capital. On the afternoon of the 9th of July, hard by the railroad bridge that spans the Monocacy near Frederick, Md., was fought one of the bloodiest engagements of the war, in proportion to the number engaged. Gen. Wallace was entrenched behind stone fences that stretched along the heights near the bridge and at right angles with the river. McCausland's cavalry, which led the vanguard of Early's army, crossed the stream and made a vigorous assault upon Wallace's lines, but after a spirited and bloody engagement, they were forced to retreat, but took up and held a position in the rear. Soon thereafter a long line of infantry was seen fording the Monocacy, and filing right under cover of hills and trees, to a position in front of Gen. Wallace's center. These troops were the famous "Stonewall brigade," formerly made immortal by Jackson, but now consolidated with other seasoned veterans, into a division commanded by Major General John C. Breckinridge. They deployed and were ordered to advance directly to the assault of Gen. Wallace's main position. The onset was furious and the fatalities on both sides, many hundreds in a few minutes. The Union troops resisted stubbornly, but were finally forced to give way, and the hundreds of dead bodies observable on the field after the fight, showed how bravely they had endeavored to stem the tide of invasion. Though defeated, Gen. Wallace and his troops had accomplished the important duty of delaying Early until reinforcements could reach Washington. Gen. Wallace was second member of the court that tried the assassins of Lincoln and president of that which convicted Wirz of the Andersonville prison horrors. In 1878 Gen. Wallace was governor of Utah and served from 1881 to '85 as minister to Turkey. He has lectured extensively and is one of the most popular of the platform speakers of the day. His chief fame, however, rests upon his authorship of the religio-historical novel, "Ben Hur: a Tale of the Christ," of which over 290,000 have been sold without diminution in the demand. It has already become an American classic, and takes front rank among the imaginative works of the world. Other popular works by Gen. Wallace are, "The Fair God," a story of the conquest of Mexico, "Life of Benjamin Harrison" and "The Boyhood of Christ." No other Indian has done so much to give his state high rank in the field of polite literature.

Schnyler Colfax, statesman, and vice president of the United States, was born in the city of New York, March 23, 1823. His grandfather, Gen. William Colfax, was a native of Connecticut, and served with distinction in the war of American independence. His father died before his son's birth, as did also a sister, and thus he became the only child of his widowed mother. The early years of Mr. Colfax were spent in his native city, where he attended the public schools and afterward became clerk in a store. In 1836 he came to Indiana, and located at New Carlisle, St. Joseph county, where he again entered a store as clerk, and in 1841, he became a resident of South Bend, in which city he subsequently received the appointment of deputy auditor. In 1842 he was active in organizing a temperance society at South Bend, and continued a total abstainer throughout his life. At this time he reported the proceedings of the state senate for the *Indianapolis Journal*, and in 1844 entered the political arena as a public speaker for Henry Clay. In 1845 he became editor and proprietor of the *St. Joseph Valley Register*, of which he was also founder, and he continued its publication for a period of eighteen years. He was secretary of the Chicago harbor and river convention in 1847, and in 1848 was elected secretary of the national whig convention, at Baltimore, which nominated Gen. Zachary Taylor for the presidency. He was a member of the Indiana constitutional convention of 1850, and in 1851 received the whig nomination for congress. His opponent was Hon. Graham N. Fitch, an able politician and a fine speaker, with whom he engaged in a joint canvass, during which the two men traveled over a thousand miles and held over 70 discussions. The district was strongly democratic, yet Mr. Colfax was defeated by only 200 votes. In 1852 he was a delegate to the national convention which nominated Gen. Scott for the presidency, and in 1854, was elected to the Thirty-fourth congress, by the memorable majority of 1,776 votes, although the same district in previous years gave a democratic majority of 1,200. In 1858 he was again triumphantly elected to congress, and served as a member of that body by successive elections until 1869. He was elected speaker of the house in December, 1863, and on April 8th of the following year, he descended from the chair to move the expulsion of Mr. Long, of Ohio, who had made a speech favoring the recognition of the southern confederacy. The resolution was afterward changed to one of censure, and Mr. Colfax's action was generally sustained by Union men. On the convening of the Thirty-ninth congress, Mr. Colfax was again elected speaker by 139 votes, his opponent, Mr. Brooks,

of New York, receiving but thirty-six. March 4, 1867, he was for the third time chosen speaker, and his skill as a presiding officer, often shown under very trying circumstances, gained the applause of both friends and political opponents. In May, 1868, the republican national convention at Chicago, nominated him on the first ballot for vice president, Gen. Grant being the presidential nominee, and the ticket having been successful, he took his seat as president of the senate, March 4, 1869. In August, 1871, the president offered him the position of secretary of state, for the remainder of his term, but he declined. In 1872 he was prominently mentioned as a presidential candidate, and the same year he refused the editorship of the New York *Tribune*. "In 1873, Mr. Colfax was implicated in the charges of corruption brought against members of congress who had received shares in the credit mobilier of America. The house committee reported that there was no ground for his impeachment, as the alleged offense, if committed at all, was committed before he became vice president." "He denied the truth of the charges and his friends have always regarded his character as irreproachable." His latter years were spent mostly in retirement at his home in South Bend, and in delivering public lectures, which he frequently did before large audiences. The most popular of his lectures was that on "Lincoln and Garfield." He died at Mankato, Minn., January 13, 1885.

Robert Dale Owen was the son of Robert J. Owen, a celebrated English reformer, who was born in 1771 and died in 1858. He was born near Glasgow, Scotland, November 7, 1801, and after receiving a liberal education in his native country, came to the United States in 1823, and settled at New Harmony, Posey county, Ind. In 1828, in partnership with Mrs. Frances Wright, he began the publication of a paper called the *Free Enquirer*, which made its periodical visits about three years. He afterward moved to New Harmony, Ind., where he was three times elected to the Indiana legislature, and in 1843 was elected to congress, in which body he served until 1847, having been re-elected in 1845. When in congress he took a prominent part in the settlement of the northwest boundary dispute, and also was largely instrumental in establishing the Smithsonian institute at Washington, of which he became one of the regents, and served on the building committee. He was a delegate to the constitutional convention in 1850, and no one bore a more prominent part in the deliberations of that body than he. In 1853 he was appointed *charge d'affaires* at

Naples, and in 1855 was minister at Naples, holding the position until 1858. During the civil war he was a firm supporter of the Union, and one of the first to advocate the emancipation of the slaves. Mr. Owen was a firm believer in the doctrines of spiritualism, and was fearless in his advocacy of the same. He inherited the communistic notions of his father, who had failed in numerous attempts to carry the system into practical operation, and he also signally failed in his attempts to accomplish a similar purpose. His scholastic attainments were of the highest order, and he possessed a mind well stored with general knowledge. He was indeed a man of transcendent ability and may justly be regarded as one of the greatest, as well as one of the best men Indiana has ever claimed. He contributed largely to the literature of his day, and the following is a partial list of his best known works: "Moral Physiology," "Discussion with Original Bachelor on the Personality of God, and the Authenticity of the Bible," "Hints on Public Architecture," "Footfalls on the Boundaries of Another World," "The Wrong of Slavery and the Right of Emancipation," "Beyond the Breakers," a novel, "The Debatable Land Between this World and the Next," "Treading My Way," an autobiography. Mr. Owen departed this life at Lake George, N. Y., January 24, 1877, aged seventy-six years.

Richard W. Thompson, ex-secretary of the navy, is a native of Virginia, born in Culpepper county, June 9, 1809. In the fall of 1831 he emigrated to Indiana, and taught school in the town of Bedford, afterward establishing the Lawrence county seminary, which he conducted about one year. Abandoning school work he embarked in the mercantile business in Lawrence county, and while thus engaged began the study of law. He was admitted to the bar in 1834, and the same year he was elected a member of the Indiana legislature, in which body he not only displayed great ability and foresight, but was also instrumental in shaping much important legislation. In 1838, he was returned to the house, and the following year was chosen state senator, of which he was president *pro tempore* on the occasion of the resignation of Lieut. Gov. Wallace. In 1841 he was elected to the United States congress over Hon. John W. Davis, but declined a renomination to the same position, and in 1843 removed to Terre Haute, in which city he has since resided. He was a presidential elector on the Harrison ticket in 1840, zealously supporting Gen. Harrison in public speeches, and by his pen, and was a defeated candidate for elector on the Clay ticket in 1844. In 1847 he was again elected to congress

by the whig party, and became prominent in national legislation during this term, but at its expiration retired from public life. In 1849 he was appointed United States minister to Austria, by Gen. Taylor, but declined to accept the honor, and was also tendered several other appointments by the general government, all of which he saw fit to refuse. During the war for the Union he was active and rendered valuable service to his country, was commandant of Camp Dick Thompson, near Terre Haute, and also served as provost marshal of the district. He was again a presidential elector on the republican ticket in 1864, and a delegate to the national conventions of that party in 1878, and 1876, in the latter of which he nominated Oliver P. Morton for the presidency. In 1867-9 he was judge of the eighteenth circuit of the state, and on March 12, 1877, he entered President Hayes's cabinet as secretary of the navy. He served nearly through the administration, but resigned the position in 1881, to become chairman of the American committee of the Panama Canal Company. Mr. Thompson has written many political platforms, and obtained a reputation for his ability in formulating party principles. He is an eloquent and effective speaker, and a man of benevolence and unassuming manners.

Col. Francis Vigo, whose name is prominently identified with the early history of Indiana, was born in the kingdom of Sardinia in 1740, and died at Vincennes, Ind., in 1836. Until 1778 he was a resident of the Spanish part of St. Louis, where, as an Indian trader, he acquired the title of the "Spanish Merchant." He removed to Vincennes a short time previous to its capture by Gen. George Rogers Clark, whom he was instrumental in assisting, for which he was afterward arrested by the British as a spy. In the Illinois campaigns of 1778 and 1779, Col. Vigo rendered valuable service to the army of Clark, by advancing large sums of money for food and clothing. Through his patriotism and self-sacrifice, he served the army and gave victory to the cause of the colonies in the west. He was made commandant of the militia of Vincennes in 1790, and in 1810 was one of Gen. Harrison's confidential messengers to the Indians. His name will ever be associated with the early history of the Wabash valley.

John W. Davis, one of Indiana's most noted public men, was born in Cumberland county, Penn., July 17, 1799, and died in 1859. He was well educated and graduated in medicine at Baltimore in 1821, shortly afterward removing to Carlisle, Ind.

He was soon embarked on a political career and graduated for the purpose in that universal and popular school, the state legislature. He served several years in that body, and was chosen speaker of the house in 1832. In 1834 he was appointed a commissioner to negotiate a treaty with the Indians. He was elected to congress by the democrats, and served from December 7, 1835, until March 3, 1837, was re-elected, and again served from 1839 until 1841, and from 1843 till 1847. During his last term he was speaker of the house of representatives, having been elected on December 1, 1845. He was United States commissioner to China in 1848-'50, and governor of Oregon in 1853-4. He presided over the convention held at Baltimore in 1852, that nominated Franklin Pierce for the presidency. Mr. Davis was a strong man and a party leader of long continued popularity and well recognized ability. He was also a decided feature of the list of self-made Indiana publicists.

The present governor of Indiana scarcely needs an introduction to the people of his state. His political career is already familiar to them, so this will only be touched on, space being given to the facts of his earlier life.

Fifty years ago in Bath county, Kentucky, Claude Matthews was born. His mother, Eliza A. Fletcher, came of an old and highly respected family, her father being Gen. Thomas Jefferson Fletcher, a Virginian, who served in the war of 1812. About the same time that Capt. Matthews went to Kentucky Gen. Fletcher left Virginia for the blue grass state, where he soon became one of her most prominent citizens. Thomas Matthews, Claude's father, was a union man during the war of the rebellion, though the greater part of his interests were in the south; but with the Scotch-Irish tenacity characteristic of his family remained true to his principles.

During his earlier student days at Center college, Claude Matthews thought to adopt the law as his profession, but when he graduated, which was at twenty years of age, he decided to lead an agriculturist's life. While at Center college he renewed the acquaintance of Miss Martha Whitcomb, whom he had met some three years previous when taking some of his father's fine horses to Ohio for safety at the time of Morgan's raid, and this friendship finally culminated in marriage. James Whitcomb, father of Miss Martha, was governor of Indiana from 1843 to 1849 and was subsequently United States senator.

Immediately after their marriage Mr. and Mrs. Matthews settled on what is known as Hazel Bluff farm, one of the finest estates in Vermillion county, about fifteen miles north of Terre Haute. Here for ten years life passed smoothly

and happily with the young couple and Mr. Matthews became in every sense of the term a practical farmer. He was largely interested in live stock, more especially short horn and Jersey cattle, and was the moving spirit in several successful organizations both in the United States and Canada for the improvement of cattle.

In the meantime children were growing up around him. Mary, the elder, is the wife of ex-State Senator Ewing, and Helen, now a young lady, is at her home in Indianapolis. Seymour, the only son, died at the recent Atlanta exposition.

It was not until 1876 that Claude Matthews took any part in politics. Then when absent from home, he was nominated to represent his county in the general assembly. Vermillion county is strongly republican, and Mr. Matthews has always been a dyed-in-the-wool democrat, but so great was his personal popularity and the respect which he had won from all classes of citizens that he carried the election by a large majority. At the end of the term Mr. Matthews returned home and expressed his intention of never again entering into politics. And so ten years passed by in quiet life. But in 1890 the democrats of the state, desiring an able and strong man to head the state ticket as a candidate for secretary of state, sought farmer Claude Matthews and practically without any effort on his part nominated him for that high office. So well did he satisfy the requirements of the office that two years later the democratic party of the state again looked to him and demanded that he accept the nomination for governor. This he did, and carried the state by the largest majority ever given to a candidate for governor.

In the administration of the public affairs with which he has been intrusted, Governor Matthews has shown at all times the broadest liberality consistent with the public good and the highest type of moral courage. He is a man of broad views and could not from any standpoint be called a one-idea man. He believes in the fullest discussion of all questions affecting his party and his country, and is ready at all times to give audience to these, whether the views expressed agree with his or not. But in no sense is he a trimmer. He believes the best service any public official can render his party is to honestly, fearlessly and intelligently discharge the duties of the position to which his countrymen have elevated him. And this he has done so well in his administration that many of his friends urged his nomination for the presidency at the recent Chicago convention, in which he received the enthusiastic support of his state.

Claude Matthews is essentially a man of the people. His

democracy is of the warp-and-woof of his character. His knowledge of men comes from close personal contact with them. He is naturally sympathetic in a large degree, and this has drawn many to him and made them fast friends. He is a man of fine address, and his manners are dignified and engaging.

PART III.

FULTON COUNTY.

INDEX TO PERSONAL SKETCHES.

Agnew, Daniel.....	20	Downs, William.....	63
Alexander, I. H.....	21	Drake, H. S.....	63
Anderson, Robert.....	22	Dudgeon, Nathaniel.....	64
Ault, Joseph F.....	22	Ely, Lewis.....	65
Aydelott, John.....	23	Ellis, John H.....	67
Bailey, Lewis.....	24	Ernsperger, F. M.....	67
Bailey, S. P.....	24	Essick, Hon. Michael L.....	68
Bailey, William J.....	25	Fish, George Rinaldo.....	69
Baker, M. A.....	26	Fry, John C.....	70
Barcus, George P.....	27	Fuller, Judson M.....	70
Barger, Samuel J.....	27	Fuller, Major.....	71
Barkdoll, Samuel A.....	28	Geier, George E.....	71
Barnett, Moses.....	29	Gibson, J. E., & Co.....	72
Barnhart, Henry A.....	30	Good, Isaac.....	73
Barr, David O.....	31	Goss, Emanuel.....	74
Baughner, W. H.....	31	Goss, William.....	75
Beauss, Hon. George Russell.....	32	Gould, Vernon, M. D.....	76
Berry, Frank L.....	33	Gregson, George W.....	77
Beyer, J. E.....	34	Grelle, P. H.....	77
Biddinger, Peter.....	35	Guise, Henry.....	78
Bitters, Franklin Pierce.....	36	Hagan, John.....	79
Bitters, Major.....	36	Hambaugh, A. J.....	79
Black, John W.....	37	Harter, Dr. C. F.....	80
Blacketer, Joshua.....	38	Heeter, William.....	81
Bowers, Abel F.....	39	Henderson Bros. & Co.....	81
Brackett, Charles William.....	39	Hendrickson, Jacob.....	82
Brackett, Lyman M.....	39	Hendrickson, Chrineyance.....	83
Bright, David.....	42	Hendrickson, Isaac.....	83
Brown, Dr. Angus.....	42	Hendrickson, Edwin R.....	84
Brown, William.....	43	Hendrickson, Matthias.....	84
Bruce, Abraham.....	44	Hill, Isaac C.....	85
Bruce, Benjamin.....	44	Hill, John G.....	85
Brugh, George W.....	45	Holeman, Allen W.....	86
Brugh, James B.....	46	Hosman, Dr. W. E.....	87
Brumbaugh, Noah.....	46	Hutton, J. T.....	88
Brundige, George K.....	47	Jackson, Charles.....	89
Buchanan, Elmer Julian.....	47	Jones, Daniel.....	90
Buchanan, Peter Macklin.....	48	Julian, Samuel W.....	90
Burch, Samuel.....	48	Katherman, Isaiah.....	92
Busenburg, Isaac.....	49	Keely, Samuel.....	93
Busenburg, Peter.....	50	Kelly, Patrick.....	94
Butler, William T.....	51	Kesler, John.....	94
Camerer, Jacob.....	52	Kessler, Isaac A.....	95
Campbell, Christopher.....	52	Kilmer, Charles A.....	96
Clayton, George W.....	53	King, John.....	97
Clymer, Newton J., M. D.....	54	Kline, Francis M.....	98
Conner, Judge Isaiah.....	55	Kumler, John J.....	98
Cook, E. B.....	56	Leavell, F. M.....	99
Cook, G. W.....	56	Lidecker, N. J.....	100
Cook, Isaac H.....	57	Long, Capt. H. C.....	100
Cook, Oliver E.....	58	Loomis, William Mackey.....	101
Coplen, M. V.....	59	Lord, Rev. N. L.....	102
Costello, James.....	59	Loring, Hon. Charles J., M. D.....	102
Costello, John W.....	60	Lough, Lewis M.....	104
Davidson, Hon. William H.....	61	Lovatt, Thomas F.....	104
Deniston, William Henry.....	61	Lowman, Silas.....	105
Deweese, Asa W.....	62	Lowry, Robert S.....	106

McMahan, John B.....	106	Slick, Byron E.....	130
Mackey, Horace C.....	107	Smith, Hon. Milo R.....	130
Mickey, Daniel.....	108	Smith, Silas.....	131
Moore, Enoch M.....	109	Stinson, Archibald.....	132
Moore, George.....	109	Struckman, Daniel.....	133
Moore, William D.....	110	Studebaker, Jacob.....	133
Morris, Dr. J. M.....	111	Surguy, Dr. A. B.....	134
Mow, Henry F.....	112	Taylor, John S.....	135
Myers, Enoch.....	112	Terry, Samuel P., M. D.....	135
Myers, Jonas.....	113	Tippy, E. B.....	136
Nellans, Thomas.....	114	Tipton, Holmes L.....	137
Norris, Noah A. W.....	114	Toner, A. D.....	138
Norris, W. V. S.....	115	Toner, John Henderson.....	139
Overmeyer, B. F., M. D.....	116	Townsend, Joel R.....	139
Pendleton, Arthur E.....	116	Troutman, John E.....	140
Perschbacher, George.....	117	Urbain, Emanuel Joseph.....	140
Polley, Oliver C.....	118	Vankirk, John W.....	141
Rader, Philip.....	118	Wagner, Jackson.....	141
Rannells, Alonzo L.....	119	Wagner, Noah.....	142
Rannells, William W.....	120	Walsh, Kyran.....	142
Reid, Frank M.....	121	Ward, William A.....	143
Rentschler, George.....	121	Washburn, E. P., M. D.....	144
Ried, William P.....	122	Wentzel, Edward.....	145
Robbins, Cyrus H.....	122	West, Benjamin Oden.....	145
Rub, Alexander.....	123	Whittenberger, Daniel.....	146
Russell, John P.....	123	Whittenberger, Rev. Jacob.....	147
Sargent, Austin B.....	124	Wilder, James S.....	148
Severns, J. R.....	125	Wilson, James H.....	149
Shafer, Winfield S., M. D.....	126	Wohlgenuth, Louis.....	149
Shelton, James Randolph.....	127	Wright, James.....	150
Shetterly, John.....	128	Zimmerman, Hon. Valentine.....	151
Shields, William Jay.....	129	Zook, Edward.....	152
Sibert, D. W.....	130		

INDEX TO ILLUSTRATIONS.

Beyer, J. E.....between.....	34 & 35	Lovatt, Thomas F.between.....	104 & 105
Brckett, Lyman M....."	39 & 40	Perschbacher, George....."	117 & 118
Conner, Hon. Isaiah....."	55 & 56	Rader, Philip....."	118 & 119
Davidson, Hon. Wm. H....."	61 & 62	Rader, Mrs. Philip....."	118 & 119
Dudgeon, Nathaniel....."	64 & 65	Robbins, Cyrus H....."	122 & 123
Dudgeon, Mrs. Nathaniel....."	64 & 65	Whittenberger, Daniel....."	146 & 147
Hill, John G.....between.....	85 & 86	Zimmerman, Valentine....."	151 & 152
Hutton, J. T....."	88 & 89		

HISTORY OF FULTON COUNTY.



PRIOR to the incoming of the white men the region now marked by the limits of Fulton county was inhabited by the Pottawatomies, who relinquished their rights to the territory by treaties with the general government. The first of these treaties was made in 1826; the second in 1832; the third and last in 1837. In 1839 nearly all red men had removed from the region.

Aubbeenaubbee was perhaps the most noted chief of the Pottawatomies. He continued at the head of his tribe until his death, which he met in 1837, at the hands of his son, in a drunken row.

By the above named treaty of 1832 he was granted a reservation, since known by his name, in Marshall and Fulton counties, embracing an area about equal to a congressional township, the portion in Fulton comprising considerable proportion of what is now Aubbeenaubbee and Richland townships. The principal village of this eccentric chief was in the northern part of Fulton county, and here he met his violent death. He occupied a conspicuous position in the making of treaties between his people and the government, and was a brave and determined leader.

In the treaty of 1826, above named, provision was made for the opening of a road, 100 feet wide, extending from Lake Michigan to the Ohio river, and a section of land for every mile of the road was granted for the construction of the thoroughfare.

The original survey for this road was made in 1828, and this is the earliest history we have of the white man invading the wild precincts of the Pottawatomies, who wigwamned on the banks of lake Manitou and the Tippecanoe river.

According to an act of the general assembly of Indiana, approved Feb. 4, 1831, William Polke, of Knox county, was appointed sole commissioner to complete the selecting, surveying, marking and numbering of the lands granted for the construction of the above named thoroughfare, since known as the Michigan road.

For greater convenience in managing the affairs of the road, Mr. Polke settled in what is now Fulton county, locating on the south bank of the Tippecanoe river, where the road crosses it. Here he erected a log cabin, into which he moved in the fall of 1831, with his family, then consisting of himself, three daughters and two sons.

The settlement of Mr. Polke marked the dawn of civilization in Fulton county.

About the same time other settlers located in the vicinity of Rochester. Among them were James Elliott and William J. Shields, who came together from Jennings county. Along with them came the venerable Jesse Shields, then a lad. Of him mention is made elsewhere in this volume.

Among the names of some of the very first settlers of Fulton county the following occur:

William Polke,	Widow Shepherd,
James Elliott,	Robert Wiley,
William J. Shields,	William A. Hail,
Alexander Chamberlain,	Michael Shore,
George Caldwell,	H. Cowen,
Thomas Martin,	Alfred Meton,
M. H. Venard,	William Whittenberger,
John Wood,	Henry Hoover,
George Bozarth,	John Troutman,
Stephen Cherney,	B. C. Wilson, and others.

Between the years 1830 and 1835 settlers came into the county very rapidly. They gave such evidence of hardihood that the organization of the region under independent jurisdiction as a county appeared advisable early in the year 1835.

ORGANIZATION OF THE COUNTY: A petition was prepared, circulated, numerous signed by the settlers, and presented to the legislature, asking the enactment of a charter authorizing the inhabitants of the territory described to assume and exercise the rights common to the people of other counties in the state. Feb. 7, 1835, an act was approved, prescribing and defining territorial boundaries; and at the session of the general assembly of 1835-36, there was passed an act "to organize the county of Fulton." The act received the approval of the governor Jan. 23, 1836. The first section of the act named the first of April, 1836, as the date after which the county of Fulton should enjoy all rights and jurisdictions which to separate and individual counties do or may properly belong.

On the second Monday in June, 1836, upon the meeting of the commissioners, appointed by the legislature to examine the proposed eligible sites for the seat of justice of Fulton county, said commissioners agreed and fixed the seat at Rochester, and reported their conclusions to the board of county commissioners, then in special session, and their report was duly recorded July 22, 1836.

PRINCIPAL TOWNS: Rochester, Kewanna and Akron are the principal towns of Fulton county. Rochester is located 100 miles east of Chicago and 100 miles north of Indianapolis, at the intersection of the Chicago & Erie and Lake Erie & Western railroads. One-half mile southeast lies Manitou lake, and two miles north the beautiful Tippecanoe river traces its winding course.

The original plat of the town was surveyed in 1835, and in 1836 Rochester was made the county seat of Fulton. The town was incorporated in 1853, and has since steadily grown until at the present time it has a population of over 4,000.

The city has a gently rolling surface and broad streets, abundantly shaded with forest maples. It is provided with water-works and electric light plants; three hotels, three banks, two grain elevators, two express agencies, two pipe lines (direct from the oil fields of Ohio, running through the corporation), one opera house, eight organized churches, sixteen lodges, two fine public school buildings, and a splendid college known as the Rochester Normal university, recently established entirely by local enterprise.

The following are the industries of the town: Three wagon and carriage factories; four produce packing houses; three cigar factories; two planing-mills; Rochester Bridge company; steam laundry; one foundry and machine shop; one shoe factory; one flour mill; one novelty works; handle factory and brick kiln. In these several industries are employed about 350 laborers.

Rochester has two weekly newspapers and one daily paper, namely, the Weekly Sentinel, Weekly Republican, and Daily Republican.

The town of Kewanna was laid out in June, 1845, by Eli A. and John Troutman. The town was platted under the name of "Pleasant Grove," while the postoffice was known as Kewanna.

Shortly after the town was laid out William Spencer opened a small stock of groceries, but the first stock of general merchandise was opened by Aldrich & Tygart, of Logansport, Mr. Tygart managing the store in person.

Kewanna is a beautiful town, and has had a steady growth, and now ranks as the second town in the county. It has a population of nearly 1,000. It is located on the Vandalia railroad, about twenty miles north of Logansport, and is surrounded by a fine agricultural district. It is a good business town, having several large and well stocked stores. There are three banks; one elevator and flour-mill; one planing-mill; one produce packing house, one pickle and salting house; one newspaper, the Herald; three organized churches; one fine school building; one good hotel.

In 1838, Dr. Joseph Sippy and Hiram Welton laid out a town in section 24, Henry township, and gave it the name of Newark. A postoffice was established at the residence of A. T. Welton, about a mile west of the village. Subsequently the postoffice was moved into the village. The name Akron, which was the name of the original postoffice, was substituted for Newark. The place has continued to prosper and is now a thriving, busy town of about 800 people. One newspaper, the News, is published there; there is one bank, two hotels, one flour-mill, two elevators, and one saw-mill. The town is situated on the Chicago & Erie railroad, and draws its trade from a

fertile agricultural section. Church and education have not been neglected, and the town forms a pleasant place in which to live.

WAR HISTORY.—The people of Fulton county from pioneer days to the present have been law-abiding citizens. Aside from the experiences common to pioneer life, guarding themselves and their families from the depredations of their Indian neighbors at a time when the situation of affairs among the natives made armed vigilance a virtue—a duty—the peace-loving citizens of the county have seldom had cause to take up arms for the common defense.

The Black Hawk war of 1832 came at a time when few settlers were domiciled here, and they had little to arouse military spirit.

When war against Mexico was declared, representatives of the then sparsely populated county enrolled themselves and went forth to do battle against a foreign foe. The names of those who thus enrolled and did service have not been preserved, and therefore their names and records cannot be given, however worthy the persons or honorable their record.

The war of the rebellion fully aroused the military spirit of the county, and to the call for volunteers to enlist in the army of the Union, Fulton county quickly responded, and her sons went forth to aid the nation in the hour of its peril, nobly discharging the duty imposed by their obligations to their common country, and the purpose to maintain the supremacy of the laws.

The first enlistments made in this county were in July and the early part of August, 1861, the volunteers thus enrolling themselves being subsequently mustered into service as Company A, of the Twenty-sixth Regiment. This company, upon being organized, was placed under the command of Capt. Milton L. Minor, subordinate officers, nearly all from this county.

The following is the roster of Company A, as it appears in the report of the adjutant general: Captain—Milton L. Minor; Percival G. Kelsey, David Rader, Archibald H. McDonald. First lieutenant—Percival G. Kelsey, David Rader, Alex. H. McDonald, Henry H. Carter, Joseph H. Weit.

Second Lieutenant—David Rader, Archibald H. McDonald, Henry H. Carter, Joseph L. Atkinson.

First Sergeant—Archibald H. McDonald.

Sergeants—Lemuel Copen, Philip Fenters.

Corporals—George Griffin, J. L. Atkinson, William J. Cannon, John A. Barnett, Marion Clemens, Granville G. Long.

Musician—Henry Hazen.

Privates—Michael Barnett, William Baker, James Burnes, Isaac H. Barrett, Henry Binnaman, James Bibler, Greenup T. Cannon, Charles Carter, Tortellus Collins, David Craft, Lorenzo M. Carver, Andrew J. Daugherty, Andrew J. Dixon, Wesley Fowler, Thomas J. Hurst, John Keel, Jonathan Nichols, Amos Osman, Hazard Ralstin, Thomas R. Riley, Henry B. Scott, Franklin Sell, John F.

Sherman, Joseph Slick, John Smalley, David Stayton, Spencer Strong, William H. Strong, Carson Swisher, Darius Troutman, Orlando Troutman, Joseph Wikel, Jonathan Wheatley, Charles C. Wheeldon, George W. Wilcox, Thomas Woods, Jacob Young, John Zartman, David Zartman.

Recruits—Cyrus Anderson, John Ankerman, Calvin Ball, John H. Ball, David L. Barrett, William T. Barrett, Abraham Blauser, David Bryant, George A. Burkhardt, John W. Burkhardt, Isaac Berlien, Alfred B. Carter, James A. Carter, James M. Carter, Joseph Carter, Marion Clemens, John W. Coon, David Daugherty, George W. Ernst, Philip B. Fenters, George S. Hazen, Harrison H. Heater, Stephen A. Hurst, Royal Kniss, Andrew J. McClannahan, William Murphy, John Rouch, Silas Rouch, Franklin D. Scott, David Secor, Ebenezer Sutton, Hiram Troutman.

The regiment was organized and mustered into service at Indianapolis, Aug. 31, 1861, with William M. Wheatley as colonel, and was honorably discharged at Indianapolis, Sept. 18, 1865. The regiment went into active service in Missouri; participated in the memorable campaign of Gen. Fremont; later, participated in the battles of Newtonia, Mo., Prairie Grove and Van Buren, Ark.; and June 1, 1863, joined the army under Gen. Grant, in the rear of Vicksburg, remaining there until the surrender of that place, on the 4th of July following. The regiment was engaged in the battle of Camp Sterling, near Morgauza, Sept. 29, and suffered a defeat, losing nearly one-half of its officers and men, mostly by capture. The prisoners were taken to Tyler, Tex., and held for several months; and January 1, 1864, the regiment re-enlisted, then enjoyed a veteran furlough of one month at home, returning to the field in Louisiana, June 1. In the spring of 1865 it participated in the campaign against Mobile, and herewith ended its service.

The next company raised in Fulton county was Company D, of the Twenty-ninth Regiment, and was composed almost entirely of volunteers, mustered into active service, in August and September, 1861. The officers and privates of this company belonging to Fulton county, were the following:

Captain—Joseph P. Collins, Jethro New, McCaslin Moore, Jonathan F. Sanford.

First Lieutenant—Fredus Ryland, Jethro New, Alpheus Dunlap, Jonathan F. Sanford, George W. Burch.

Second Lieutenant—Jethro New, McCaslin Moore, Jonathan F. Sanford, George W. Burch.

First Sergeant—McCaslin Moore.

Sergeants—Andrew C. Shepherd, John H. Geller, Alpheus Dunlap.

Corporals—Ellison A. Smith, Byron W. Worden, William T. Baker, James H. Dunlap, Oliver S. Carpenter, Alexander Young.

Musician—Darius Ault.

Privates—James Abbott, James Baker, William S. Bidwell, John O. Burton, Park H. Collins, James S. Collins, Benjamin Fairchilds, Franklin C. Hamlet, Thomas M. Hamlet, Joseph Herrin, William H. Herrill, Jabez Izzard, Job W. Johnson, John J. Kaler, Sylvester Kennedy, Love Smith, John H. Mackey, John McConnehey, John McMillen, Isham R. New, John Oakman, Jeremiah L. Ormsby, Thomas Pyne, David W. Rhodes, Jacob Robbins, George W. Sherwood, Jasper H. Shore, Jeremiah Smith, Jesse R. Smith, John Smith, Charles Worden.

Recruits—Francis Bell.

The Twenty-ninth Regiment was organized at La Porte, with John F. Miller, colonel, and its first assignment to duty was with the command of Gen. Rousseau, at Camp Nevin, Ky., whence it moved to the vicinity of Munfordsville, where it remained until the movement on Bowling Green, in February, 1862. The regiment participated in the battle of Shiloh, where it lost severely in killed and wounded; aided in the evacuation of Corinth; moved with Buell's army through Northern Alabama and Tennessee into Kentucky; followed in pursuit of Bragg through the latter state; returned to Nashville; with Gen. Rosecrans' army marched toward Murfreesboro; took part in battle of Stone river; followed the fortunes of Gen. Rosecrans' army during 1863; participated in battle of Chickamauga; afterward stationed at Bridgeport, Ala., where the regiment was re-enlisted and veteranized Jan. 1, 1864, and given a veteran furlough of one month. The regiment returning then to the field, was stationed at Chattanooga till December, 1864; afterward skirmished at Decatur, Ala., and Dalton, Ga., and during the remaining service was on post duty in the vicinity of Marietta, Ga.

In the summer of 1862 the recruiting service was quite active in Fulton county, and as a result of that activity, enlistments amounting in the aggregate to the major part of three companies, which, upon being fully organized, officered and mustered in, were severally designated as Companies D, E and F, of the Eighty-seventh Regiment, which was organized at South Bend, Aug. 28, 1862, and mustered into service at Indianapolis three days later for a term of three years, with Kline G. Shryock as colonel.

The officers and privates of this regiment, credited to Fulton county, were the following:

Regimental Officers—Kline G. Shryock, colonel; Fredus Ryland, adjutant; Robert N. Rannels and Jerome Carpenter, quartermaster; Vernon Gould, assistant surgeon.

Company D officers were: Captain—William H. Wood, Lewis Hughes, John W. Elam; first lieutenant, Lewis Hughes; second lieutenant, Mark C. McAfee, John W. Elam, Lewis M. Spotts; first sergeant, John W. Elam; sergeants, Benj. F. Brown, John J. Oliver, Lewis M. Spotts, John L. Newby; corporals, Alex. M. K. Huling, Luther Stradley, Philip Gunkle, William Frazier, James Graham,

Henry Spohn, Andrew T. Bitters, William Sheaffer; musicians, Alfred Horack, Lafayette Smith; wagoner, Joseph A. Collins.

Company D privates were: Isaiah Adamson, Aaron M. Bell, George W. Ball, John W. Biggs, Jasper W. Bozarth, William Brocaw, John W. Brock, Lorenzo Burch, Robert E. Chestnut, John D. Clarke, Harvey Clemens, Daniel S. Cole, William Cole, Anderson Carr, Dennis Cuberly, Israel Daggett, William Daugherty, Joseph Day, Israel Dwiggin, William Ewer, John W. Gallion, Elan Galttry, James Gould, Christopher Gould, Noah Goudy, Milton Hall, Chichester Holder, Robert C. Holder, Andrew Hatter, George Kibler, John Kelley, Absalom Macy, Horace Markey, Benj. Miller, Henry H. Moore, David Moore, David Monshour, Thomas J. New, William Oliver, David C. Oliver, John Oren, James Oren, James B. Osborne, Abel O'Blennis, William B. Packard, Charles M. Pearson, William H. Polke, George H. Pownell, Benj. F. Porter, James Quiggs, George W. Raestin, Christian Rice, John Reschke, John Roney, John Robbins, Charles M. Ross, Frederick Rowe, Levi Sherow, David C. Shelton, William H. H. Shields, Rufus A. Shores, Oracle Shores, F. M. Smith, J. M. Smith, Abraham Steffy, Eli Strong, John Stull, Jacob Vantrump, John F. Whittenberger, George Whittenberger, Cline S. Wilson, John B. Wright, George W. Wright, Jacob Wright, William H. Wright, Henry York; and Lewis Boatz was a recruit.

Officers of Company E were: Captain, Alfred T. Jackson, Peter S. Troutman; first lieutenant, Peter S. Troutman, Hamilton McAfee; second lieutenant, Hamilton McAfee, Joseph Slick, Franklin H. Bennett, Henry W. Hoover; musician, William Halstead; wagoner, James H. Troutman.

Privates of Company E were: Philip Anderson, William S. Barnett, Judson Bennett, John R. Blasser, Edwin R. Boyer, Daniel Bruce, John N. Carter, John W. Carter, Isaac H. Cannon, Joel H. Davis, William R. Davis, Jacob Dipert, Samuel Dipert, William Dixon, Andrew Dukes, Simon Fall, John W. Ferrall, Henry C. Green, Moses Heckert, John Heckert, Daniel Herald, Alfred Hizer, Robert Holliday, Elias V. Hudkins, Henry L. Hudkins, John Hysong, Bailey N. Jeffries, Zephaniah Jones, George W. Kaler, George H. Kiplinger, Henry Lebo, William H. Miller, William H. Mohler, Alex. E. Mohler, William Myers, John Myers, Philip Obermayer, Jonas Powell, Emanuel M. Rans, William Rans, Hiram Rairick, Henry Rairick, Daniel M. Rogers, Henry S. Ross, George Rouch, Allen N. Rush, John W. Rush, George W. Singer, Carrington G. Slight, Orlen Smith, Robert Smith, Aaron Smith, Austin B. Smith, John R. Smith, Gaten Smith, George P. Smith, Jacob Snyder, Walter F. Soper, Adam Spotts, William H. Spotts, James W. Thomas, Robert Tribett, James T. Troutman, John H. Vandever, Ephraim Warrick,

John E. Williams, Randolph Williams, Ransom T. Williams, Peter Wiltmer.

Recruits were: Alber G. Aitken, John Anderson, William J. Ball, Theodore Baker, Nathan Bibler, Alexander Cooper, Joseph Cannon, Daniel Cannon, Allen Collins, Eli M. Detrick, William D. Dukes, James E. Harvey, James Hurst, Abraham Hoover, James M. Kilmer, George W. Kaler, Hiram McCumber, John G. Minton, Jared Pugh, Francis M. Smith, Jordan R. Smith, Philip Ware, Thomas Wilson.

Officers of Company F were: Captain—Asa K. Plank, George W. Truslow, Horace C. Long.

First Lieutenant—George W. Truslow, David Mow, Horace C. Long, Jacob H. Leiter.

Second Lieutenant—David Mow, Horace C. Long, Jacob H. Leiter, Jonas Myers.

First Sergeant—Horace C. Long.

Sergeants—Jacob H. Leiter, Joseph W. Beeher, Albert G. Pugh.

Corporals—Benj. B. Patton, Silas C. Jewell, Jasper W. Squires, Jewell Calift, James H. League, Banner Lawhead, William H. Storm.

Musicians—James S. Ellis, Isaac S. Townsend.

Wagoner—James N. Wilson.

Privates of Company F were: William H. Alleman, Peter B. Apt, William Apt, James J. Babcock, Daniel Barnhart, Thomas Barnhart, James Barrett, Asa E. Batchelor, Samuel A. Berrier, Stanford Beverly, Samuel P. Berry, George C. Capp, John E. Cates, Hamlin Carpenter, Edward B. Chinn, Johnathan Clay, Clement W. Clay, John Crain, John N. Dunlap, Franklin Drake, William R. Farry, Simeon J. Frear, James T. Gainer, Alfred L. Goodrick, Peter Gripp, Frederick Gylam, Henry Hatfield, L. H. Heikman, C. S. Heikman, Peter Hoffman, John Housse, William Hunter, Levi Jenkins, George W. Kessler, Simon Kessler, George Kessler, John Kessler, Jacob Leise, Joseph A. Love, George Loomis, Jessie L. Martindale, Shannon Mackey, Robert McAlexander, James L. McMahan, Austin W. McFall, Benj. McKelfresh, Lewis D. Middleton, Hiram Mickey, John O. Mon, James E. Mon, Jonas Myers, Henry Paschall, William Pence, William Pentz, Henry Platt, John Realstin, John M. Reid, Otho N. Rhodes, John Roth, Jonathan H. Robbins, Harper Rodgers, Andrew J. Rugh, Adam Rimenschneider, Edward Short, Joseph J. Smith, James W. Squires, Benj. F. Smith, Madison Stoops, Dennis R. Smith, Harrison Stotler, Jacob M. Stahl, William H. Swartz, Joseph B. Taylor, George Toothman, Jasper True, Harrison Walker, Isaiah D. Webb, Samuel M. White, Elias Zolman.

The recruits of Company F were Frederick Apt, John B. Anderson, Alfred S. Baker, L. E. Berry, Augustus Braneller, James W. Braman, John Cripe, Thomas Carter, Joseph S. Collins, Palmer

Collins, William D. Corey, James R. Deweese, Lewis Davis, Ratcliff B. Evans, Benj. F. Evans, Michael Henry, William Irvin, George O. Miller, William McCarter, Theodore Moore, James Richardson, John S. Rhodes, Benj. F. Ross, Asa Robinson, Robert D. Sheepman, Willard Stringham, Russell Toothman, John Walts, Andrew E. Wallace, John F. Walters, Henry Walters, Seymour Wertz, Daniel Young. William C. Prince and Amos M. Prince were privates of Company G.

The Eighty-seventh Regiment did gallant and effective service. At first it was assigned to Gen. Burlbridge's brigade, but one month later it was transferred to the Third brigade, Third division of the Fourth Army corps, and took part in Gen. Buell's campaign through Kentucky.

In 1863 it engaged with the Army of the Cumberland, in the campaign against Tullahoma; and in the campaign against Chattanooga, bearing conspicuous part in the battle of Chattanooga. Upon the re-organization of the Army of the Cumberland, it formed a part of the Second brigade, Third division of the Fourteenth Army corps. The regiment participated in the storming of Mission Ridge, Nov. 25, 1863; also in the Atlanta campaign. Moving with the corps from Atlanta it participated in a series of campaigns through Georgia and Alabama. Reaching Louisville, Nov. 28, rested there until the 1st of December and then it moved toward Jacksonboro, afterward participating in the siege of Savannah, and upon the evacuation of the place, occupied the city until Jan. 30, 1865. Thence marching through the Carolinas, captured Smithfield, and moved forward toward Washington city, to take part in the grand review of Sherman's army. Finally it was mustered out of service June 10, 1865.

On the evening of July 8, 1863, news was received at Indianapolis that a rebel force under Gen. John H. Morgan, estimated at 6,000 cavalry, had crossed the Ohio river and was then on a raiding expedition through Indiana. Gov. Morton immediately issued a call, and within forty-eight hours afterward 65,000 men had tendered their services. Of this force, thirteen regiments and one battalion were formed to meet the emergency. These regiments were numbered from 102 to 114, inclusive, and the battalion assigned to duty with the One Hundred and Seventh Regiment. Of the One Hundred and Fifth Regiment of this force, Kline G. Shryock, of Rochester, was placed in command as colonel. These several regiments remained on duty as "minute men" until after the escape of Morgan into Ohio. The One Hundred and Fifth was mustered out on the 18th of July, at Indianapolis.

Under the call of Dec. 20, 1864, for eleven regiments to serve for one year, the One Hundred and Fifty-fifth Regiment, composed of companies recruited in the Ninth, Tenth and Eleventh Congressional districts, was organized at Indianapolis on the 18th of

April, 1865, with John M. Wilson, of Peru, as colonel. Of this regiment, Fulton county furnished Company A, and a portion of Company G. The roster of these companies is as follows:

Regimental Officer—Emanuel Pegann, surgeon.

COMPANY A.

Captain—Robert M. Shields.

First Lieutenant—John A. Barrett

Second Lieutenant—Samuel A. Barkdoll.

Privates—Charles Adams, Archibald Anderson, William S. Alexander, Robert N. Beries, Jacob W. A. Bender, John A. Barnett, Michael L. Barnett, Benjamin F. Bear, Jacob Beck, A. Barkdoll, Francis M. Bundy, Abraham B. Blasser, Jefferson Baily, Jacob Barrett, Thomas S. Brown, John V. Brown, John Baker, Thos. A. Bell, James J. Braman, Lafayette M. Byram, James M. Calvert, George Craig, Benjamin F. Craig, Jacob Collindern, Albert Case, Onesimus Case, Gustavus Collins, Jesse H. Coon, Chancy Copeland, James H. Clayton, David N. Dague, James Dimitt, Marion Finley, Nathan Finley, Charles S. Fifield, Gardner Fifield, Benjamin Green, James Gandy, William Hoover, William H. Hoffly, Samuel D. Halsted, Hiram Henderson, John Hissing, Frederick Muffman, Augustus Hullburt, James H. Hill, Henry C. Herald, Archibald Hudkins, Jonathan A. Horn, James M. Horn, William Lee, Nathan Julian, Zephaniah Jones, John Kulp, Jared A. Keen, David Kamp, Joseph Knoflouch, Joseph Kets, William L. Kessler, Lazarus S. Lurey, John S. Miller, Gabriel Miller, Silas V. Miller, William V. Moore, Reuben V. Minton, Joseph C. Mow, John Millings, Orlando McNobb, James A. McClung, Henry McMullen, Samuel L. McCartee, George N. McLaughlin, Samuel L. Norris, Samuel Nicklow, George D. Overly, Jonah Powell, John Phillips, Jasper Porter, Adolphus Parker, Joseph Rhodes, Benjamin H. Rush, James Robbins, William Robinson, William Schively, George W. Shawley, Benjamin Snider, Hiram Seffes, Jacob M. Stahl, John Sanns, Samuel C. Smally, Walter S. Sinks, Silas M. Stroup, Albert D. Stubb, Grindy T. Teglantro'rt, John Walmer, Henry Walmer, Henry C. Ward, John W. Weaver, Henry Wyrick, John A. Waddel.

COMPANY G.

Captain—George P. Anderson.

First Lieutenant—George P. Anderson, Joseph Slick.

Second Lieutenant—Joseph Slick.

Privates—George P. Anderson, George W. Bozarth, Thomas W. Batson, John H. Brokaw, Charles W. Brokaw, Lucius Bealls, William Baker, Francis J. Bruillette, James F. Collins, Joseph A. Carter, Charles W. Cherry, James W. Duff, Thomas Davis, Francis M. Ernsperger, Henry Hatfield, Daniel Hann, John Henderson,

James Hogan, Samuel H. Hood, Abram Kessler, William L. Koon, Jesse B. Middleton, Thomas Norman, Ebenezer C. Olden, Edward Sanders, Joseph Slick, Levi P. Starr, Frederick Sturken, William Windbegler, Cornelius Welsh, Samuel D. Wood, Jonathan P. Willard, Amos Zolman.

"On the 26th of April the regiment left for Washington, and upon its arrival there it was sent to Alexandria and assigned to the provisional brigade of the Third division of the Ninth Army corps. On the 3d of May, it was transferred to Dover, Del., at which place companies were detached and sent to Centerville, and Wilmington, Del., and Salisbury, Md. On the return to the regiment of two of these companies, a railroad accident occurred by which a number were severely injured. The regiment being brought together was, on the 4th of August, 1865, mustered out at Dover, Del. Arriving at Indianapolis on the 10th, with thirty-two officers and 800 men, for final discharge, it was publicly welcomed home at a reception meeting held in the State House grove, at which addresses were made by Lieut. Gov. Baker, Gen. Benjamin Harrison and others."

BENCH AND BAR.—Upon the organization of Fulton county, it was made a part of the Eighth judicial circuit of the state, of which Hon. Samuel C. Sample was president judge.

The first session of the Fulton county circuit court, as prescribed in the act of organization, was convened at the residence of Ebenezer Ward, in Rochester, on the 27th day of October, 1836. The court, however, immediately adjourned from the residence of said Ward, by proclamation to convene instanter at the house of Robert Martin, in Rochester. At this session Hon. Samuel C. Sample was president judge, and John Robbins and Anthony Martin, Esqs., were the associate judges. Lot N. Bozarth was clerk and John Davidson sheriff.

On motion, Gustavus A. Evarts and Joseph L. Jernegan, Esqs., were admitted to practice as attorneys and counsellors at law at the bar of the court, and were sworn in accordingly.

A scrawl seal was devised and adopted for the court until a proper seal should be obtained. On the second day of the term, Joseph L. Jernegan, circuit prosecutor, failed to appear, and Gustavus A. Evarts was appointed prosecutor, pro tem., to act as such during the balance of the term, and was sworn in as such. William Polke was appointed, by the court, county surveyor for Fulton county, for a term of three years thereafter.

The second term of Fulton county circuit court was convened March 6, 1837, at the residence of Robert Martin, with the same officers. The attorneys present and having business were Isaac Naylor, John W. Wright, George W. Blakemore, John B. Niles, and William Z. Stuart.

At a term of the court in session on the 5th day of September, 1837, the court devised and adopted a seal, on which were the words:

"Indiana, Fulton County Circuit Court," and in the center of the seal, a female figure, standing, holding in one hand a sword, and suspending, in the other, the scales of justice.

Hon. John W. Wright, of Logansport, succeeded Judge Sample, and served as president judge of the circuit court from the April term, 1842, to the September term, 1846. He was succeeded by Hon. Horace P. Biddle, of Logansport, who held the position seven years, from Jan. 9, 1847, by commission, but in consequence of his resignation before the end of that period, he served only until 1852. Hon. H. Milroy, of Delphi, served until the May term, 1853, and was succeeded by Hon. Thomas S. Stanfield, at the August term of the same year.

Prior to the change in the state constitution, in 1853, there were two associate judges, for each county, who occupied the bench of the circuit court, with the president judge, and in his absence directed the business of the court. The following are the names of those who served as associate judges in Fulton county: John Robbins, Anthony Martin, Jonathan Beeber, James McColm, Ebenezer Ward, James Moore, Frederick Ault, John Ball and James Burrows.

At the time of the change in the state constitution, Hon. Thomas S. Stanfield was president judge of the circuit court. He served until 1858. Since then the judges of this court have been as follows: Andrew L. Osborne, 1858-71; Thomas S. Stanfield, 1871-73; Elisha V. Long, 1873-75; Horace Corbin, 1875-76; Sidney Keith, 1876-82; Jacob S. Slick, 1882-83; William B. Hess, 1883-84; Isaiah Conner, 1884-90; A. C. Capron, 1894-96.

The first session of the probate court of Fulton county was convened at the residence of Robert Martin, in Rochester, May 8, 1837, with Hon. Joseph Robbins as judge. The probate court was continued in existence until 1853, when, by act of the legislature, its jurisdiction was transferred to a court of common pleas. The judges, who, from time to time, occupied the bench of the probate court, during its existence, were Joseph Robbins, 1837-44; John J. Shryock, 1844-47; Anthony F. Smith, 1847-49; and James Babcock, 1849-53.

The first session of the court of common pleas of Fulton county was convened at the court house, April 4, 1853, with Hon. Hugh Miller as judge, and Anthony F. Smith clerk. During the existence of this court the following judges occupied the bench: Hugh Miller, 1853-57; Carter D. Hathaway, 1857-61; Kline G. Shryock, 1861-65; Thomas C. Whiteside, 1865-69; James H. Carpenter, 1869-73.

This court was abrogated in 1873, and its jurisdiction transferred to the circuit court.

Although the number of attorneys who have resided in Fulton county and practiced before its courts, has not been large, nevertheless, some of the ablest advocates in the state have been members of the bar of this county.

The complete list of those attorneys who have resided in the county cannot be ascertained. Those practicing law in the county at this date are as follows:

M. L. Essick, Milo R. Smith, Sidney Keith, Isaiah Conner, Enoch Myers, Julius Rowley, George W. Holman, Rome C. Stephenson, Harry Bernetha, M. A. Baker, John W. Smith, Henry Bibler, O. F. Montgomery, P. M. Buchanan, W. W. McMahan, C. K. Bitters, Frank H. Terry, A. D. Toner, Jr., F. L. Wagoner.

MEDICAL HISTORY.—The first physician to locate in Fulton county was John J. Shryock, a worthy and successful practitioner, who came here shortly after the first settlements were made, and continued in the county till his death in 1855.

The resident physicians in the county, in the early forties were Dr. Shryock, Henry W. Mann, Lyman Brackett, James W. Brackett, Thomas H. Howes, and at a later period A. H. Robbins, J. T. Goucher, A. Sutton, J. C. Spohn, Angus Brown and others.

Since then many others have practiced in the county, among whom have been the following: A. B. Surguy, A. M. Shields, A. C. Orr, W. Hill, V. Gould, C. Hector, W. S. Shafer, N. J. Clymer, C. J. Loring, E. P. Washburn, B. F. Overmyer, C. F. Harter, W. E. Hosman, J. M. Morris, and others.

There have been many able practitioners of medicine, who have from time to time resided in the county; and at this time the county is supplied with a competent corps of physicians. Unfortunately, there has never been maintained in the county, except for brief durations, a medical society of the practitioners, and for this reason no extended history of the profession can be here recorded.

ELECTION AND REGISTER OF OFFICERS.—To give tabulated returns of all elections held in Fulton county since the date of its organization, would be only to consume much space, and would be of no practical value, except to show which political party has from time to time controlled the balance of power; and as the county has long been recognized as democratic, with occasional variations, and as a list of the various officers, who have served the people of the county, is of particular interest, a register of officers, in the county, is given below:

Those who have represented the county in the state senate are as follows:

George W. Ewing, 1836-40; Williamson Wright, 1840-42; John D. Defrees, 1842-44; William G. Pomeroy, 1845-47; Norman Eddy, 1848-52; August P. Richardson, 1853-57; Hugh Miller, 1857-59; Rufus Brown, 1859-60; Daniel R. Bearss, 1861-63; Samuel S. Terry, 1865-67; Charles B. Lasselle, 1869-71; Milo R. Smith, 1873-75; Charles H. Reeves, 1875-80; William H. Davidson, 1881-84; V. Zimmerman, 1885-88; Perry O. Jones, 1889-92; Samuel Parker, 1893-96.

Fulton county has been represented in the house of representatives by the following gentlemen, who are named in the order of their elections, beginning with the year 1836: William N. Hood (served three terms), Alex. Wilson, William M. Reyburn, William Rannels, Amzi L. Wheeler, Joseph Robbins, William G. Pomeroy, Anthony F. Smith, James O. Parks, John J. Shryock, Enos S. Tuttle, Hugh Miller, William M. Patterson, (served two terms), D. Shoemaker (served two terms), Kline G. Shryock, A. H. Robbins, N. G. Shaffer, Stephen Davidson, Jesse Shields, Stephen Davidson (a second term), Edward Calkins, Peter S. Troutman, George W. Bearss, John F. Fromm, Dr. Samuel S. Terry, Simon Wheeler, Arthur C. Copeland, A. D. Toner, W. I. Howard, Sidney R. Moon (two terms), William W. McMahan, Charles J. Loring.

From the date of the organization of the county to the present time, the following have been elected to the office of clerk:

Lot N. Bozarth, Anthony F. Smith, Lot N. Bozarth, Joseph J. Davis, Robert Aitkin, Anthony F. Smith (appointed), Vernon Gould, Samuel Keely, William Newcomb, Isaiah Walker, E. T. Reed, M. O. Rees, James R. Shelton.

The following are those who have served as recorders of Fulton county:

Lot N. Bozarth, Anthony F. Smith, Sidney Keith, Alvin L. Robbins, Milo R. Smith, Chester Chamberlain, John L. Blanchard, F. C. Wilson, Holmes L. Tipton, and George K. Brundige.

Lot N. Bozarth, who served as first auditor of the county, was succeeded by Ebenezer Ward, and then Mr. Bozarth was elected to a second term. Since then the following have been elected to this office:

W. K. Logan, John Douglass, D. R. Pershing, Andrew J. Holmes, Daniel Agnew, Charles W. Caffyn, John C. Phillips, John A. Barnett, William H. Deniston, and John Kessler.

The treasurers of the county have been John Davidson, John B. Ward, Robert Martin, Eli Cliffert, Kline G. Shryock, Isaiah Hoover, Alvin L. Robbins, H. W. Mann, William Sturgeon, William P. Ball, A. V. House, John E. Cates, Absalom Nellans, William Potter, James Ware, F. H. Ditmire, Benjamin Bruce, John R. Barr, and John J. Kumler.

Benjamin C. Wilson was appointed the first sheriff of Fulton county, and since then the following have held that office in the order named: John Davidson, Anthony F. Smith, James P. Gregory, John Davidson, Gilbert Bozarth, Benj. C. Wilson, Hiram M. Porter, Abel Simmons, William Spencer, William Osgood, Isaac Good, John W. Davis, L. M. Montgomery, Sidney R. Moon, William A. Ward, William T. Butler, Robert C. Wallace, A. A. Gast, John King, F. A. Dillon.

The county surveyors have been as follows: William Polke, Henry Hoover, James S. Chapin, Hugh Miller, Jeremiah Gould,



FULTON COUNTY COURT HOUSE, JULY 14, 1896.

Hugh Bowman, L. L. Loveland, Hugh Bowman, Vernon Gould, Isaiah Walker, Silas Miller, Theodore B. Ferry, H. A. Barnhart, Frank K. Stinson, Peter J. Stingley, Lucius Gould.

Below are given the names of those who have served as county commissioners: Martin H. Venard, Samuel G. Sperry, Michael Shore, Andrew Oliver, Robert Holliday, Leander Chamberlain, Moses McElheny, Job Meredith, William Moore, John Robbins, John Shoup, Jacob Smith, William Spencer, Richard Coplin, William P. Ball, V. C. Conn, John McConnahey, William McMahan, B. A. Eidson, James Keeley, R. T. Beattie, Thomas Meredith, Isaac Puntions, Frederick Peterson, Peter C. Dumbauld, James Martin, Cyrus S. Graham, Thomas W. Barnett, John W. Black, George W. Carter, William McMahan, Martin Sturgeon, William Bryant, Edward McLoehlin, C. Campbell, J. C. Hudkins, M. V. Coplin, J. R. New, Cyrus Bybee, Asa W. Deweese, C. H. Robbins, Nathaniel Dudgeon, Moses Barnett, Thomas F. Lovatt.

The following examiners and county superintendents of the public schools have served in the county since this office has been held by one incumbent: Hugh Miller, George W. Shilling, Rev. A. V. House, W. H. Green, Enoch Myers, William J. Williams, F. D. Hainbaugh, A. J. Dillon, David D. Ginther, George R. Fish.

PUBLIC IMPROVEMENTS AND FINANCES.—But few counties in Indiana have better public buildings and other improvements than has Fulton county. The county has not only fine roads, substantial bridges and imposing public buildings, but also many fine homes and well improved farms.

Within one year from the time when the county government went into successful operation, the necessity for a building for judicial purposes became apparent. The first court house was completed in the fall of 1837, at a cost of \$750. It was a frame structure, 20x24 feet, and two stories high.

This primitive court house was used for court purposes for about ten years. It became inadequate for conducting the county's business, and in March, 1846, plans were accepted for a new court house, to be built of brick, and 44x60 feet in size. The contract for its erection was awarded to Henry Kent, at his bid of \$6,000, to be completed in two years. It was a substantial two-story brick, the finest court house in this section of the state when completed, and served the county for nearly a half century, but became too small and ancient for a progressive county and the board of county commissioners issued an order for a new one at the December term, 1894. The plans of A. W. Rush and son, of Grand Rapids, were adopted at the February term of court, and the contract for constructing the building was awarded J. E. Gibson & Co., of Logansport, who commenced work in June, 1895. The building is of Buff Bedford stone, 100x112 feet extreme floor dimensions, two stories and basement, and fire-proof throughout. The cost complete, including furniture,

yard grading, walks, etc., aggregated \$125,000, and it is one of the best, handsomest and most convenient court houses now in the state.

The first steps toward the erection of a jail building in Fulton county were taken at the session of the board of county commissioners, convened in November, 1836. The building was completed and first used in September of 1837. It was a two-story frame structure, and served the public until 1851, when the brick jail, which stood in the rear of the public square until torn down in 1804, supplanted it at a cost of \$5,000. The brick structure was used for nearly a half century, when, in 1893, Commissioners Dudgeon, De-weese and Robbins built an elegant new structure, on a lot separate from the public square, at a cost, complete, of about \$25,000.

"Among the first provisions made by law for the alleviation of the wants of the poor and indigent, was directing the appointment of overseers of the poor, whose duty it was to hear and examine into the nature of all complaints in behalf of the poor, in each civil township of the county, and see that their wants were sufficiently provided for; that such should not suffer for the common necessities of life, nor be ill-treated."

For a number of years after the organization of the county, as was the rule generally adopted throughout the state, the "farming out" system prevailed. A few years later an advance was made, and the county became possessed of a tract of land, since known as the "Poor Farm." The tract of land was purchased by the county board of commissioners in 1871, and in the same year a "poor house" was erected on the farm. It was a frame structure, 16x28 feet in dimensions, and one-story high. In 1876, it was supplanted by the present brick structure, which cost, complete, \$8,003.58.

The farm has other good improvements and has always been under good management.

While Fulton county has not had any phenomenal advances in growth and development, still it has made steady progress. It has convenient shipping facilities, having direct railroad communications with Chicago, Indianapolis and the great lakes on the north; and there are nearly twenty-five miles of free pikes in the county. The district and town schools and school buildings in the county are to the credit of any intelligent and enterprising people.

According to the report of the county treasurer, rendered July 21, 1836, the total amount of receipts, as per that first financial report made in this county, was \$73.83; while the total amount of disbursements reported at the same time was \$24.00.

The present assessed value of real and personal property in the county is about \$10,000,000.

The total receipts from the various sources in the county for the year ending May 31, 1806, were \$203,829.22. The amount on hand June 1, 1805, was \$73,746.04, which, together with the total receipts,

gave an aggregate fund of \$277,575.26 for the year ending May 31, 1896. For that same year orders were drawn to the amount of \$243,877.31, to which were added orders that were outstanding June 1, 1895, increasing the sum to \$245,127.97. The orders paid for the year ending May 31, 1896, amounted to \$244,060.92, and the orders outstanding June 1, 1896, amounted to \$1,067.05, while the balance in the treasury June 1, 1896, was \$33,514.34. The amount of orders outstanding June 1, 1896, being deducted from the balance in the treasury at that date would show a total balance on hand, above outstanding orders, of \$32,447.29. The bonded indebtedness of the county at that time amounted to \$144,500.00, of which \$35,000.00 were in the 6 per cent. ten-year bonds of Sept. 12, 1893; \$65,000.00 in the 5 per cent. twenty-year bonds of May 1, 1895; \$25,000.00 in the 5 per cent. twenty-year bonds of May 1, 1896, and \$19,500.00 in a 6 per cent. temporary loan of Dec. 12, 1895.

The foregoing figures show the county's financial condition at the beginning of the present fiscal year not to have been very bad for a county of such progress and resources as Fulton county.

Since then considerable expense has been incurred by the building of a new court house, and the bonded indebtedness has been increased, but after taking all into consideration the condition of finances in Fulton county is far from being deplorable. The county now has an imposing, substantial and beautiful court house, which together with other good public improvements signifies that the county is progressive.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES.

DANIEL AGNEW.—In Ripley county, Ind., Nov. 27, 1836, occurred the birth of Daniel Agnew, a son of Joseph B. Agnew, a native of Hamilton county, Ohio, born Oct. 22, 1815. The earlier years of the father's life were devoted to farming and carpentering. At twelve years of age, he went to Ripley county, Ind., where he remained until 1847, when he enlisted in the war with Mexico. In the battle of Buena Vista he lost a leg and returned home in 1848, and in 1850 removed to Winamac, Ind., where his death occurred Dec. 23, 1895. As a citizen of Pulaski county, he held the position of land commissioner, clerk, recorder and treasurer. He was united in marriage Feb. 25, 1835, to Miss Louisa M. Boldrey, who was born Jan. 25, 1818, in Ripley county, Ind., and now resides at Winamac, Ind. Joseph B. Agnew was familiarly known as "Uncle Joe," and so clear was his record and his character was so illumined with good deeds and uprightness, that when the end came his long line of acquaintances in Pulaski county seemed to say, "Let the good and true man rest." Of twelve children born to Joseph B. and Louisa M. Agnew, Daniel is the eldest. He obtained a common school education. Until he gained his majority he remained upon the farm. From 1857 until 1860 he was employed as civil engineer in railway construction and swamp land work. He served as surveyor of Pulaski county for one term, and then for one year worked in a telegraph office, and in 1864 he came to Rochester and accepted employment in the auditor's office as deputy auditor. In 1866 he was elected auditor of Fulton county, and re-elected to the same position in 1870. As auditor and deputy auditor he served the people twelve years. The marriage of Mr. Agnew to Miss Emily L. Miller was solemnized Feb. 25, 1862. She was born in Fulton county, Ind. Mrs. Agnew is a daughter of Hon. Hugh Miller, who was born at Nashville, Tenn., Sept. 4, 1806, and his death took place March 11, 1867. In boyhood he removed with his parents to Butler county, Ohio, where, Oct. 21, 1830, he married Miss Phebe Caffyn and soon after removed to Decatur county, Ind., and later removed to Delphi, Ind., where for three years he had charge of a seminary. From his early manhood he was a teacher by profession. He came to Fulton county in 1837, when there were but a few log cabins in Rochester and many Indians in the county. He resided in Rochester a few years and then removed to his farm about three

miles south of the town, where his death ensued. He was a member of the convention that formed our present state constitution, and served several terms in the Indiana general assembly, both as representative and senator. He was judge of the court of common pleas the four first years after the organization of that court. He was always a devoted friend of education and for many years was the county examiner of teachers, and had a state reputation as an educator and leader in affairs. He was liberal and kind-hearted, and the especial friend of the poor. His death unto this day has left a vacancy hard to be filled. In politics, the subject of this review has been identified with the interests of the democratic party, and he and Mrs. Agnew (nee Miller) are among the prominent people of Northern Indiana.

J. H. ALEXANDER, of Rochester, was born in Cass county, Ind., Sept. 2, 1830. He was reared to the duties of the farm in that and Fulton county. Henry Alexander, his father, was born at Stone River, Tenn., Nov. 10, 1806. He went to Kentucky when a boy and on to Ohio and was married in that state in Medina county to Mary Hall, whose father, Amos Hall was born in North Carolina, and died in Ohio. Henry Alexander was a son of Amos Alexander, a New Light preacher, who was born in Virginia, emigrated to Tennessee, thence to Kentucky and died in this state in 1846, aged sixty years. Henry Alexander left Cass county, Ind., early in the 40's and went to Cedar county, Mo., expecting to make that state his future home, but it was too new, Indians were too numerous and sickness and other ills combined drove him back to Indiana again in six years. He came into Rochester just as the old court house was being finished. May 18, 1856, the subject of this sketch married in Fulton county Daniel Carr's daughter, Rebecca, from Jay county, Ind., but originally from Coshocton county, Ohio. Mr. and Mrs. Alexander's children are Mrs. Ida Southard, Susan B., married A. Thallman; Hilda, deceased, married David Smith, and left one child, Gladys. In 1864 Mr. Alexander enlisted in Company B, One Hundred and Forty-second Indiana volunteers. Capt. Jim Thompson was his captain. He was mustered into service at Indianapolis and was sent to Nashville and caught Hood there. His regiment remained in that post till the surrender of Lee, when it was mustered out and was discharged at Indianapolis July 14, 1865. Mr. Alexander returned to this county and farmed three years. He then went to Tyner City and was engaged in the hotel business for seven years. Twenty-one years ago he engaged in the retail liquor business in Rochester. He has prospered and has invested some of his surplus in Fulton county real estate. He owns a farm of 117 acres, a comfortable home in Rochester, and a brick business block on the south side of the square in Rochester. He is a republican in politics.

ROBERT ANDERSON, of Newcastle township, is one of the leading farmers of the county and was born in Wayne county, Ohio, Feb. 8, 1834. He came to Indiana in 1841, with his father, William Anderson, who made his settlement in the unbroken forests of Kosciusko county. In that neighborhood young Robert was reared and trained in the habits of industry. The country subscription school gave him his education and the pure, open air his robust physique. His father died about 1856 and he undertook, in a measure, the care of his widowed mother. He married at the age of twenty-two years, wedding Elphina, daughter of Jesse Bird, who was born in North Carolina, first settled in Wayne county, Ind., and some years later in Kosciusko county. Mrs. Anderson died in 1878, leaving a son, George Anderson, who resides on his father's farm, and has a family. His first wife was Mary A. Miller. At her death she left one child, Hulda. George's present wife was Mary Giek, whose three children are: Burl, Nora and Robert. Robert Anderson reared one other child, viz., Delpha, wife of Alex H. Scritchfield, of Marshall county. She was the daughter of William Anderson. Our subject's father was born in Trumbull county, Ohio, was married in Wayne county, Ind., to Mary Wood, who died in 1875, being the mother of the following children: Rachel, Robinson, deceased; Andrew, living in Texas; William, deceased; Francis, residing in Mentone; Robert, Abner, in Marshall county; Mary Roop, deceased; Ira, deceased, and Elizabeth, deceased, married to N. A. W. Norris. Robert Anderson came to Fulton county in 1866 with but \$600. He bought eighty acres, which were partly but poorly opened up, made a small payment on it and went several hundred dollars in debt for the balance. He has paid out on this indebtedness, bought another eighty acres, drained, cleared and otherwise improved the whole, out of the products of the farm. Mr. Anderson is a democrat.

JOSEPH F. AULT.—The industrial interests of Rochester are well represented by this gentleman, a well known architect and mechanic, who has been prominently connected with building in this city, evidences of his work being seen in many of the substantial structures of Rochester. Mr. Ault is of Hoosier nativity, his birth having occurred in Huntington county, March 31, 1858. The Ault family had its origin in Saxony, and the original American ancestor probably landed at New York and settled near that city, for Philip Ault, the great-grandfather of our subject, was born at Manhattan. Removing to Pennsylvania, he located at Valley Forge, where he was living during the memorable winter that the American army under Gen. Washington suffered untold hardships there. His son, Frederick Ault, was born at Valley Forge in 1800, and in 1812 the family emigrated to Belmont county, Ohio, where Frederick learned the trades of milling and distilling, and also followed the occupation of farming. The father of our subject, Henry

Ault, who for a number of years has been a resident of Rochester, was born in Belmont county, Ohio, in 1826, and learned the trades of carpenter and millwright. In 1854 he removed to Huntington county, Ind., and enlisted at Indianapolis, with the boys in blue of Company H, Forty-seventh Indiana infantry, which regiment was attached to the army of the Potomac. After thirteen months of active service he was discharged from field duty on account of disability, and transferred to the hospital service, acting as hospital steward at Camp Wyckliffe, Ky. By order of the division surgeon he was given charge of hospital No. 2, at Louisville, Ky., and later was placed in charge of the convalescent corps, returning home with some of "the boys." Henry Ault was married in 1849, to Susanna Freck, a native of Fairfield county, Ohio, and a daughter of Joseph Freck, a farmer of German descent. Their children are Eva, wife of Wm. J. Bailey, of Leitchs Ford, Fulton county; Mary H., wife of George H. Adams, of Rochester; Joseph F., and Lilla, wife of G. F. Barcus, of Rochester. After leaving the public schools of Rochester, Joseph F. Ault attended the State Normal at Terre Haute, and subsequently engaged in teaching for a few years. On abandoning that profession, he learned the business of wood working with his father in the latter's shop and mill. For six months our subject was an employee in the shops of the Wabash railroad company at Peru, Ind., and later was superintendent of the construction of depots on the Erie road from Monterey to West Point. He has also erected at different points some stations for the Standard Oil company, and for some years he was acknowledged as one of the leading contractors of Rochester, erecting buildings for J. B. Fieser, O. P. Dillon, Cary Rapp, J. M. Kern and others. He is now devoting his time to shop work and architecture, superintending the operation of a planing mill, which he erected in 1881. He is a broad-gauged, practical business man, whose straightforward dealings have gained him the confidence of all with whom he has come in contact and won him a liberal share of the public patronage. Mr. Ault gives his political support to the republican party. For two years he acceptably served as town clerk, and is now serving his third year as a member of the Rochester school board. During his incumbency, the board has erected a \$20,000 school building, and liberal apportionment has been made, largely through his efforts, for furnishings and apparatus. He is deeply interested in the cause of public education and all measures calculated to advance the schools of Rochester receive his support. Mr. Ault is a man of domestic tastes, whose interests center in his family. He was married March 25, 1884, in Huntington, Ind., to Joanna M. Flora, and they now have four interesting children—Fred H., a lad of ten years; Edith M., seven years; Joseph O., aged four; and an infant, Willie.

JOHN AYDELOTT, Liberty township, was born in Hamilton county, Ohio, Oct. 23, 1816. His father, John Aydelott, was born

in Delaware. His early life was spent in the coasting trade on the Atlantic ocean, winding up his twenty-two years' service as a ship captain. In 1807 he settled in Hamilton county, Ohio, and died in his last home, Montgomery county, 1831, at sixty years of age. Our subject's paternal grandfather, John Aydelott, was born in France. He settled in Delaware on coming to America. The mother of our subject was Mary, a daughter of William Lockwood. Her children were Nancy, Lavina, Benjamin, Jacob and Thomas, all deceased; Sarah, widow of William Chambers; Elizabeth, deceased; Rebecca, deceased; and John. The last mentioned was sent to school only a few months during his boyhood. He began life as a teamster in Montgomery county, Ohio, and made his first money in that way. He was married Jan. 6, 1840, to Sarah, a daughter of Morris Harris, from New Jersey. This venerable couple have reared two orphan children, viz.: Eva Shafer, now Mrs. Jacob W. Warner, of Miami county, and William H. Bryant, who married Sarah M. Aydelott and lives in Kansas. "Uncle John" Aydelott came to Fulton county in October, 1848, and settled in the dense wood on his present farm. He has it cleared up and beautified, and although eighty years of age, can turn his hand to any kind of heavy work. He was found May 5, 1896, digging a drain through the side of his farm. He has been a strong, healthy man, and few have been the days that he has not attended to the usual duties of the farmer.

LEWIS BAILEY, the son of William and Mahala Bailey, and the brother of William J., elsewhere mentioned, was born in Aubeenaublee township, Fulton county, on the farm now owned by his father. He remained with his father until he was past twenty-two years of age. He was married Oct. 31, 1877, to Amanda Tracy, the daughter of S. S. and Caroline Tracy. To this marriage were born three children, viz.: Estella, Pink V. and Clark. Mr. Bailey practically began life with nothing, but by hard labor has been quite successful and now owns a comfortable home and 100 acres of land. He has always been a staunch democrat. He and his wife are both members of the M. E. church. In 1803 he was appointed to serve the unexpired term of John Marbaugh, township trustee, and faithfully performed his duties for three years thereafter. Mr. Bailey has always been industrious and persevering. He has made a success in farming by reason of being a hard worker and by being frugal and strictly honest in all his affairs of business. He enjoys the confidence of a wide circle of acquaintances and is one of the county's representative citizens.

S. P. BAILEY, of Rochester, devotes his entire attention to cabinet and planing mill business and is one of the self-made hustlers of the young crowd. He has been associated with Jonas Myers in the management of their mill for years past and is enumerated among the reliable men in his calling. He was born in Hardin

county, Ohio, Feb. 2, 1858. He had the advantages of a village school training prior to the graded schools of Rochester, to which town he was brought in 1873 by his father, L. S. Bailey. Stella Bailey began business after he became of age, in the employ of his present associate. He was drawn into this line of work naturally, his father having been a lumber man at some time in his career. He is a democrat in politics, and was made the candidate of his party for town marshal, and although the town was republican he was elected by 112 majority. He is a K. of P., a Red Man, and a K. O. T. M., a member of the fire company and of the Citizens' band. Mr. Bailey's father was born in Hardin county, Ohio, sixty-two years ago. He was recently marshal of Rochester and was a soldier in the Union army during the civil war, and has followed farming during a portion of his residence in Fulton county. S. P. Bailey married in Rochester, March 24, 1888, wedding Essie, daughter of Jonas Myers, a prominent and esteemed citizen of Fulton county. Unto Mr. and Mrs. Bailey the following children have been born: Martha, Margaret Moyciah and an infant daughter.

WILLIAM J. BAILEY, the son of William Bailey, was born in Aubbeenaubbee township, Fulton county, Dec. 8, 1852. His father was born in Kentucky, October 8, 1816, and lived there until he was sixteen years of age, at which age his parents and self moved to Putnam county, Ind. After having lived there for some time they moved to Delphi, in Carrol county, Ind. From here he started out in life for himself and after roaming around for some time finally came to Fulton county, Ind., and lived with his parents, they having moved thither. However his parents stayed here but a short time until they returned to Delphi, where they took up their permanent abode. The son remaining in Fulton county. He was married Oct. 19, 1840, to Mahala Knight. This union was blessed with seven children, viz.: Mary Jane, deceased; Asa, deceased; Amelia, Emiline, deceased; Elizabeth, William J. and Lewis. The mother died Sept. 4, 1882. The father still lives on the old homestead. He was married a second time to Emaline Kirkendall July 20, 1885. To this union were born two children—Anna and Charles. The father has helped all his children and still owns forty acres of land. William J. remained with his parents until he was twenty-four years of age. He was married Dec. 29, 1875, to Eve Ault. He had just \$40 and his wife \$60 at the time they were married. With this they purchased a team of horses, which died before the summer was over. Not becoming discouraged with this, they commenced again, the wife to teaching school and the husband began working on his father's farm. The wife has always had bad health. They have raised their brother's children, having none of their own. Through all these misfortunes they have been very prosperous, and now own a beautiful home and one hundred acres of valuable land. He has always been a staunch democrat. He and his wife are members of

the M. E. church. In 1886 he was elected township assessor and served his term of four years as a successful officer.

M. A. BAKER, county attorney, and for the past decade a conspicuous figure at the bar of Fulton county, was born near the city of Albany, N. Y., at the town of West Berne, Feb. 28, 1856. His education was acquired in the Nassau grammar school and Starkey seminary and lastly at Hobart college at Geneva, N. Y., completing a course at each of these institutions. He engaged in the profession of teaching at fifteen, as a means of securing the funds necessary to carry him through college. He was nineteen years old when he graduated from Hobart college. He chose the profession of law for his life work, and began reading on the subject with his brother, Albert Baker, at Sharon Springs, N. Y. He was well prepared for his license at the end of his three years' reading, and was admitted to practice before the general term of the New York supreme court. He practiced for a brief period with his old tutor before removing to Cobleskill. There he was elected police judge on the democratic ticket and served from 1877 to 1883. He was also clerk of the board of supervisors for six years in the same county. In 1884 Mr. Baker cast his fortunes with the people of Rochester. He formed a partnership with Julius Rowley, and was so associated for nine years. Mr. Baker's ability and popularity brought him face to face with the democratic nomination for district attorney in 1894, which he accepted, but the tide was so strong against his party at the fall election that even the office of district attorney, which was thought to go surely to the democrats, slipped away from them and Mr. Baker accepted defeat quietly, bowing always to the people's will. He has just been appointed by the republican board of county commissioners, county attorney for 1896, a compliment to his wisdom as an advisor and counselor. Mr. Baker's father was David Baker, who married Elizabeth Durfee. The former was born near Albany, N. Y., in 1812. He was a farmer and stock buyer and prominent local democrat. His death occurred in 1866. His father and the grandsire of our subject was Benjamin Baker, who came from England. He was a Federal colonel, during the war of 1812, and died at Sag Harbor. He married a Miss Crosby, of English descent, and reared nine children, Benjamin Baker, of Westview, Ohio, being the only surviving one. Our subject's maternal grandfather was David Durfee, a farmer, who came from Ireland and located at Quaker Street, Schenectady county, N. Y. His wife was Mary White. Four of their ten children are still living, Stephen Durfee, Quaker Street, N. Y.; Maria, Cambridge, N. Y.; Abram, Cambridge, N. Y.; and David, Jr., Esperence, N. Y. Our subject married at Cobleskill, N. Y., March 29, 1884, to Miss Marie, daughter of Hon. William H. Young, deceased, a prominent lawyer and ex-member of congress elect, and eight years district attorney for the district in which Cobleskill is situated. His wife was Amelia

Angle, who died in Rochester. Mr. Baker belongs to the encampment in Odd Fellowship, is a K. of P., and a Knight of the Maccabees.

GEORGE P. BARCUS, of the firm of Barcus & Elliott, of Rochester, was born in Columbiana county, Ohio, Oct. 8, 1859. His father is Henry A. Barcus, a retired resident of Rochester. He was born in the municipality of Hanover, Germany, seventy-five years ago, or on Sept. 14, 1821. He left the fatherland when young, and came to Indiana. He married in Marshall county, this state, Mary Quigg, whose father, — Quigg, was born in —, and went from Pennsylvania to Ohio, and later located in Marshall county. Henry A. Barcus came to Rochester, in 1863, and engaged in farming in this (Rochester) township. His children are: Retta, wife of Henry Neiswanger, of Ft. Wayne, Ind.; John, Rochester; J. Q., Indianapolis; George F., W. C., Chicago; Rosie B., wife of G. W. Wagner, of Fulton county; Arthur J., Rochester; Ira O., Chicago. George F. Barcus secured his education in the district schools. He found it necessary at a very early age to begin earning a subsistence for himself. He began learning the plasterers' trade in his teens, with A. F. Bowers. He began a successful career as a mechanic when he had mastered his trade. He became a contractor and did some of the best work that Rochester boasts of. The residences of C. C. Wolf and "Doc" Collins being samples of his work with the trowel. He engaged in contracting for thirteen years, and has acquired a comfortable home besides other property as a result of his labor and management. He is possessed of the spirit of progress and takes an interest in the welfare of Rochester. He is trustee for the First ward, elected on the republican ticket. He is a promoter of good street and sidewalk facilities, and of the extension of the water supply. Mr. Barcus married in Rochester, Oct. 30, 1889, Lillie, a sister of Joseph F. Ault, of Rochester. Mr. Barcus is a K. of P. and a K. O. T. M.

SAMUEL J. BARGER, a representative farmer and citizen of Union township, Fulton county, Ind., was born in Seneca county, Ohio, Aug. 27, 1848. He is a son of Andrew and Mary (Horner) Barger. The father was born in Columbia county, Pa., Jan. 26, 1816. He died in Fulton county, Ind., Jan. 25, 1878. The Bargers descend from Pennsylvania Dutch. Andrew Barger's parents settled in Seneca county, Ohio, and in that county Andrew married Mary Horner, who was born in Brush Valley, Pa., Sept. 14, 1828. She is a daughter of Joseph and Hannah (Cousor) Horner, of Pennsylvania Dutch descent. After the marriage of Andrew and Mary Barger, they lived for six years in Seneca county, Ohio, and then in 1854 came to Indiana, and settled in Aubbeenaubee township, Fulton county. Here the father's death occurred. The mother is now living, making her home with her children that live in the county. The children born unto the marriage of Andrew and Mary Barger

are: Samuel J., Elizabeth, two children that died in childhood, John W. Barger, George F. and Mary. The father was a plain, humble and hardworking farmer. The subject of this sketch was reared on a farm and remained there till twenty-one years. He attended the district schools. At the age of twenty-one he went to Rochester, where he attended school for one year. Then he spent one year in school at Valparaiso. Then began teaching and taught district schools for twelve winters thereafter, farming in the summer. He served as trustee of Aunbeenaubbee township for three years and resigned the office when he moved onto his present farm in Union township in 1879. He was married April 26, 1877, to Miss Emma F., daughter of William and Electa Cook. She was born and reared in Union township. She bore him four children, viz.: Stella May, Earl Guy, Electa Glen and William A. The mother of these children died Oct. 31, 1887. March 13, 1895, Mr. Barger married a second wife, Mrs. Adella Hordin, nee Loyd. She was born in Union township. Mr. Barger owns 160 acres where he lives and also ten acres of timbered land elsewhere. He is a democrat in politics and has served as trustee of Union township one term. He and family are members of the M. E. church. He is a member of the I. O. O. F., and is a representative citizen.

SAMUEL A. BARKDOLL is a semi-pioneer to Fulton county, and has performed well his part in the upbuilding of Rochester and patriotically fulfills his whole duty as a citizen. He is a Keystone by nativity, coming into existence in Adams county, Pa., Nov. 18, 1834. His parents were Samuel Barkdoll and Margaret Harboe. The former died at thirty-five in 1837, and the latter in 1884 at seventy-six. The living children are Nancy, wife of David Stephey, of Fulton county; Samuel A., Margaret, wife of Christ Hoover, of Rochester. Mr. Barkdoll's mother moved to Franklin county, Pa., soon after her husband's death, and it was in the common schools of that county that young Samuel obtained his meager education. He lived with his guardian from twelve to sixteen, at which age he grew weary of his treatment and ran away. He found work on a brick yard wheeling mud at twenty-five cents a day. Got out at 4 o'clock in the morning and worked correspondingly late at night. At eighteen he engaged himself to an old German named Widmyer. He finished his trade of cabinet maker with him in three years, and was in a mood to go west, but had not the funds. So he worked in the harvest field twenty-six days to secure the necessary cash and soon after set out for Indiana. He landed in Rochester the fall of 1856, and worked with his brother-in-law several years, increasing his original capital from seven dollars to a comfortable surplus above a good subsistence. In 1863 he enlisted in the government service as bridge carpenter, and the year following joined Company A, One Hundred and Fifty-fifth Indiana volunteers, Capt. Shields, Col. Wilson. He afterward recruited enough men to entitle him to a sec-

ond lieutenant's commission. The company was mustered in at Laporte, was ordered to Washington, thence to Virginia, back to Salisbury, Md., and there did guard duty to the end of the war. Mr. Barkdoll was mustered out at Dover, Del., and returned home in August, 1865. Dec. 28, 1858, Mr. Barkdoll married Aletha Smith, who died in 1867, leaving two living children—Schuyler C., married Alice Fleyman, and Margaret. In October, 1868, Mr. Barkdoll married Susan J. Stradley, daughter of James Stradley, deceased, from Dover, Del. Their children are: Nora, died 1895; John, died at Colorado Springs in 1893; Elsie, George, Bessie and James. Mrs. Barkdoll died in September, 1892. Mr. Barkdoll is an I. O. O. F., a K. of H., and belongs to McClung post, G. A. R. He is now operating the giant planing mill which he built in 1872. He is a republican in politics, is a genial, sociable gentleman and an esteemed townsman.

MOSES BARNETT, county commissioner, was born in Cass county, Ind., March 18, 1833. Mr. Barnett is a son of Harrison and Sarah (Lamar) Barnett. His father was a native of Kentucky, and a son of Robert and Nancy Barnett, who were also natives of Kentucky. Robert Barnett was a pioneer settler in Cass county, and the father of ten sons and two daughters. The Barnetts are mainly of German origin. Harrison Barnett was a young man when he came to Cass county with his parents. In that county he married Sarah Lamar, who was a daughter of John Lamar, of French origin. He was an early settler in Cass county. His daughter was born in Ohio. Unto Harrison Barnett and wife three sons and five daughters were born. He died when thirty-five years of age. His widow lived many years afterward and died some eight years ago, aged seventy-two years. Moses Barnett was reared on the farm, and his educational advantages were poor. He was fourteen years of age at the time of his father's death, and at that early age Mr. Barnett began the battle of life for himself. He learned plastering and followed the trade many years. He was married in 1857 to Bessie E. Fish, a native of Cortland county, N. Y. After his marriage Mr. Barnett went to housekeeping in Logansport and lived there until he took up farming. He first farmed in Cass county. In 1880 he purchased a farm in Wayne township, Fulton county, and since that date he has resided on this farm. Beside farming Mr. Barnett has dealt largely in stock. He has been a successful business man, and has gained the esteem and confidence of his fellow-citizens, who honored him by an election to the office of county commissioner in 1894. He has always been a staunch republican in politics. He and wife are members of the Methodist Episcopal church. Unto them have been born five children, viz.: Harry, Nina D., Lizzie E., Davy D., deceased, and Minnie, deceased.

HENRY A. BARNHART, editor and proprietor of the Rochester Sentinel, was born in Cass county, Ind., Sept. 11, 1858. His parents were Jacob and Mary (Fisher) Barnhart, natives of Franklin County, Va. The father was a son of Abram Barnhart, a native of Pennsylvania, whose paternal parent was a native of Germany. In an early day he settled in Pennsylvania. Mr. Barnhart's maternal ancestors were also of German origin. The marriage of Jacob Barnhart and Mary Fisher was solemnized in Miami county, Ind., and soon after marriage they settled in Cass county. Such toil, as pioneers of those days experienced, fell to the lot of Jacob Barnhart and his wife. Farming was his vocation throughout his long and exemplary life. He was a devout Christian. He and his wife were members of the German Baptist church, and for the last thirty years of his life he was a minister of the gospel, and during the latter half of that period he was presiding elder of the Eel river district of his church. He was of strong brain power, a wise counselor and recognized leader. He died in the year 1894, at the age of seventy-three years. His widow now (1896) resides on the old homestead in Cass county. Unto Jacob and Mary Barnhart were born ten children, six of whom are living. Henry A., the subject of this sketch, was reared amidst the scenes of farm life. His richest heritage was that of excellent parentage. His early scholastic training was received in the country schools. At Amboy college he took a preparatory course. He taught several terms of school, and then took up the study of law. But six months' work on Blackstone and Kent revealed to him the vast amount of labor and research necessary to become a lawyer, and necessity compelled him to turn to a vocation promising earlier financial returns. Fate and force of circumstances often direct men's lives into strange channels, and such is true of Mr. Barnhart. In 1881 he came to Fulton county and again tried farming. Subsequently he was elected county surveyor, and in 1885 moved to Rochester, where he has since resided. Soon after coming to Rochester, Mr. Barnhart purchased the Sentinel, and finding its management the most satisfactory vocation of his experience, the years of dreamy ambitions to acquire fame and fortune at the bar, or wealth and independence on the farm, were supplanted by the attractiveness of newspaper work, in which he has been very successful. The Sentinel he has made a first-class county paper, and his rank as an editor is suggested by the fact that he has held the honorary position of chairman of the Democratic State Editorial association. He has also served as a member of the democratic state central committee, and is now a member of the executive staff of that committee. He has also held the responsible position of director of the Northern Indiana prison, and while serving as such was president of the board. In every sense of the term, Mr. Barnhart is a man of progress. He was secretary and director of the construction company for the Rochester water works plant;

is now president of the Rochester telephone company; president of the auditing committee of the Grand Camp of the Knights of the Maccabees of Indiana, and is also a member of the order of Knights of Pythias. Mr. Barnhart married Louretta, the daughter of Arthur and Nancy Leffel, and unto the marriage two sons have been born, namely, Dean and Hugh. They also have a foster daughter—Glen Howell-Barnhart.

DAVID O. BARR, a successful and progressive farmer of New-castle township, and familiarly known as "Oliver" Barr, was born in Richland county, Ohio, March 9, 1857. His father left the Buckeye state in 1858 and cast his fortunes with the people of Franklin township, Kosciusko county, Ind. The industrious, prosperous farmer was born in Pennsylvania in 1826. His father, Samuel Barr, emigrated to Richland County, Ohio, and died there. He was a Jefferson democrat, and his son was a follower of the same political faith. George, the father of Oliver Barr, married Susan a daughter of David Smith, formerly from Bedford county, Pa. Mr. Barr died in 1878, outliving his wife six years. They left three sons—Oliver, Samuel O., and John R., ex-county treasurer of Fulton county. Oliver Barr was educated in the common schools. He began life as a farmer on his father's farm at nineteen. He was married about this time April 16, 1875, to Martha L. Clingenpeel, and settled on his present farm, consisting then of less area than now and being unimproved with the exception of a log house and same kind of a stable. Mr. and Mrs. Barr laid up a little each year and began beautifying their premises as they felt able. The forest has receded almost to the farm lines, a pretty substantial brick residence has taken the place of the log cabin and the log stable has been superseded by a large modern barn. Mrs. Barr's father was Jacob Clingenpeel, who came to Kosciusko county from Virginia very early. Mr. and Mrs. Barr have one child, Maud, born April 2, 1877.

W. H. BAUGHER, justice of the peace of New Castle township, who stands in the front rank among the public-spirited and enterprising citizens of Fulton county, manifested his loyalty to the nation by an honorable service in defense of the Union during the late war. He was born in Tuscarawas county, Ohio, July 13, 1846. Just ten years previous his father, Henry Baugher, a native of Bavaria, Germany, came to America, a vigorous and ambitious young man of twenty years, seeking a home in the new world. He began work at the wagon-makers' trade in Strausberg, and there met and married Mary E. Kline, also a native of Bavaria. For some years they resided in that place, and then emigrated farther westward, to take their part in the development of a newer state. In 1863 they located in Bourbon, Marshall county, Ind., where they are still living, in the enjoyment of good health, and the father may still be found at his trade, as he was half a century ago. Their eldest child, Mary E., became the wife of Daniel Martin, and died in Marshall county, leav-

ing eight children. The second, John, is in Golconda, Ills. Julia is the wife of John Silvius, of Marshall county. Philip is in Bourbon, and George in Valparaiso, Ind. Matilda is the wife of R. Cecil, of Plymouth, Ind., and Theodore is in Ellwood, this state. Our subject was the third of the family, and during his earliest childhood he spent the greater part of his time in his father's shop, so that when only ten years of age, he could hew out spokes, handle the auger, and do many primary things to be learned in a wagon shop. He had mastered the business when the bugle sounded the call for loyal men to take up arms and defend the flag of our nation. He enlisted February 12, 1862, at Canal Dover, Ohio, in Company C, Eightieth Ohio infantry, and with his command went to Cairo, Ills., to Paducah, Ky., and on to Corinth, Miss. After participating in the siege of that place, he took part in the battle of Iuka, and aided in driving the rebels from the fortifications at Corinth. This was followed by the engagements of Holly Springs, Oxford, Grand Junction, Memphis and Helena, Ark., and after the Yazoo Pass expedition the regiment returned to Helena, and went down the Mississippi river to Young's Point, participating in all the battles around Vicksburg. Returning to Memphis, they then went to East Tennessee, and took part in the battle of Missionary Ridge, where Mr. Baugher was struck by a ball that necessitated the removal of a part of his skull. Later he went with his regiment to Huntsville, Ala., and in the spring was ready for the Atlanta campaign. He saw that city captured, and went with Sherman's invincible army to the sea, then north to Fayetteville, N. C., when he was honorably discharged, his time having expired. Returning to Indiana, Mr. Baugher spent a year in school in order to prepare himself for business life, and then worked at the wagon-makers' trade in Bourbon for four years, when he came to his present home in New Castle township. His farm of fifty-five acres is the best improved in the township, and indicates the enterprise and progressiveness so characteristic of the owner. In politics he is a democrat, and is now serving his second term as justice of the peace. Socially, he is a Mason, and belongs to McClung post, G. A. R. Mr. Baugher was married July 4, 1869, to Amanda, daughter of Alba and Delilah (Greer) Baylor. Her father was a native of Pennsylvania, and in his family were the following children: George, of Plymouth; W. F., of Texas; Rachel, wife of James Jordan; Mary, wife of John Devers; David, of Purdy, Mo., and Celeste, wife of W. H. Goodnight. Mr. and Mrs. Baugher had three children, but Howard died at the age of four years; and George W. at the age of eighteen months. Mary M., the second child, aged twenty-two, is an accomplished musician, and is the joy of the parents' home.

HON. GEORGE RUSSELL BEARSS.—One of the most progressive farmers and stock raisers of Indiana, is the gentleman whose name introduces this biography. In 1834 Mr. Bearss was

born at the old village of Miamiasport, where the city of Peru now stands, and is a son of Hon. Daniel R. Bearss, who during his life was one of the distinguished men of Indiana. He was born in New York state in 1808, and died at Peru, Ind., in 1885. In boyhood he came to Indiana and for some time was a clerk in a store at Logansport and then went to Fort Wayne and later to Goshen, and in the fall of 1834 settled in Miami county. For twenty years he was a leading merchant in Peru, and then invested in town property in that city and farm lands in Miami and adjoining counties. He was a man of aggressive spirit and in many ways contributed to the best interests of his adopted city and county. In politics he was a life-long republican, and for about twenty years represented his party in the Indiana general assembly, either in the house or senate. He was in fact one of the leaders of the republican party of Indiana. The honest poor man found in him a friend, and the cases are numerous in which he helped the less fortunate to attain success in life. The mother of George R. Bearss—Emma A. (Cole) Bearss—was born in Zanesville, Ohio, in 1815, and now resides upon the old homestead in Peru. The subject of this review is the eldest of eight children, of whom five are living. He first attended the public schools, and at twelve years of age he was sent to Kenyon college at Gambier, Ohio, where he continued for six years. The school days over, Mr. Bearss spent two years in California, and then returned to Peru, where he remained until 1864, when he came to Rochester and for four years was engaged in the walnut lumber business in partnership with Edwin E. Cowgill, under the firm name of Cowgill & Bearss. Mr. Bearss then bought 120 acres of land in Rochester township, where the house of Thomas Lovatt now stands. A short time later he bought 1,040 acres more. About thirteen years ago he removed to his present place of residence, an easy distance southwest of Rochester. He now has about 700 acres of fine land. He has spent about \$30,000 in the improvement of his farm, which is considered one of the best farms in Northern Indiana. He has always given much attention to stock interests and has upon his farm some of the best blooded stock in Fulton county. The republican party has the earnest support of Mr. Bearss. His first presidential vote was cast for John C. Fremont at the convention held in Musical Fund hall in Philadelphia, which nominated him for the presidency. In 1874, Mr. Bearss was elected to represent Fulton county in the Indiana legislature. He was united in marriage in 1860 to Miss Mary Troost, who died in 1884, leaving one son, Daniel R. Mr. Bearss was married again in 1885, to Miss Jessie McBride, who was born in the same neighborhood where she now resides. To this marriage three children have been born, of whom only one is now living, Albert Gresham. Mr. Bearss is one of Fulton county's leading citizens.

FRANK L. BERRY, farmer and teacher, was born in Pulaski

county, Ind., March 22, 1858. His parents are Aaron and Caroline Berry. His father was born in Sandusky county, Ohio, March 24, 1830. In that county he married and in the year 1857 moved to Pulaski county, Ind. In 1861 he came to Fulton county, and settled in Rochester township, where he resides at present. His wife's parents were natives of Virginia, but she was born in Ohio. Unto Aaron and Caroline Berry were born six children, viz., Mary, deceased; Charles, Ellen, Frank L., James C., and Alpharetta. Frank L. was reared on a farm and was given an opportunity to attend the district schools in winter seasons, and at the age of seventeen years began teaching and for six years thereafter both taught and farmed. During the six years following he did not teach, but he resumed teaching and for the last eight years he has both taught and farmed. He was married Dec. 25, 1880, to Miss Jennie, a daughter of Harvey and Martha Conner. The marriage has given issue in the birth of two children, viz., Earl C. and Otto. Both Mr. and Mrs. Berry are members of the Methodist Episcopal church. He is a member of the fraternal and mutual benefit order known as the Knights of the Maccabees, and in politics he is of the democratic party. Both as a teacher and farmer, Mr. Berry bears an excellent reputation. His efforts at both have been attended with very satisfactory results. Much of that which he has accomplished in the way of success has been due to individual effort.

J. E. BEYER, of Rochester, was born in Hessen Castle, Prussia, March 6, 1858. He attended the schools of his native land and at the age of fourteen emigrated to America, locating at Goshen, Ind., where he secured employment. Realizing the necessity of further educating himself in English, he attended school in Goshen three winters, defraying the expense of the schooling with earnings from his summer employment. In 1874 he secured employment with George Freese, a produce dealer of Goshen, in whose employ he remained until 1877, at which time Mr. Bever and his brothers, J. F. and C. C. Beyer, embarked in the produce business at Warsaw, Ind., doing business under the firm name of Bever Bros. Success followed the business adventure, and the firm has now been in business nineteen years, and has gained a wide and favorable reputation. They now have business houses at Warsaw, the home of J. F. Bever, at Kendallville, the home of C. C. Bever; at Rochester, Goshen, Logansport, Monticello, North Manchester, Huntington, Kewanna, Monon, Brookston, Delphi and other points in Indiana, Michigan, Illinois and Ohio. They do an annual business of about one and three-quarters of a million dollars, and rank among the largest produce firms in this country. Some years ago the firm of Bever Bros. purchased property at Eagle Lake, Ind., their purpose being to make the place a summer resort. They beautified the grounds, erected costly buildings, employed a landscape gardener and provided such means of entertainment as rendered Eagle Lake a



J. E. Byers

popular summer resort. The Chautauqua people held a few of their meetings there and were much pleased with the place. In 1895 the grounds and improvements were purchased by the Presbyterian National Chautauqua assembly, now known as the Winona assembly and Summer School Association, of which Mr. J. E. Beyer is a director and advisor. Mr. Beyer's business career has been one of phenomenal success. His active business course has placed him in acquaintance with a wide circle of people, and in all his business dealings his sagacity, wisdom and integrity have won for him the esteem of many friends. He holds several responsible business positions, among which may be named the presidency of the Rochester Electric Light company and the position of director, both in the Farmers' Building and Loan association and the Citizens' bank of Rochester. He stands as a representative citizen, a man of progress, an example of what gratifying success may be accomplished by worthy ambition, by energy and integrity, even though one may begin the struggle for wealth and station in life under adverse circumstances, as was the case with Mr. Beyer. Mr. Beyer was fortunate in securing in marriage the hand of Irena B. Oldfather. The home of Mr. and Mrs. Beyer has been blessed by the birth of one child, a son named Earl E. Mr. Beyer is a member of the order of Knights of Pythias, and in social circles both he and wife sustain pleasant relations.

PETER BIDDINGER, a well-known real estate dealer of Rochester, was born south of Wabash, Ind., on the Mississiniwa river Aug. 16, 1844. He came to Fulton county in 1861, with his parents, who located near Leiters Ford. Peter was reared to hard work, and was but sparingly educated. He was hired out by his father from nineteen to twenty-one and his wages were appropriated to the use of the parental treasury. He earned the money that bought his first overcoat after he became of age. He engaged in independent farming as soon as his circumstances enabled him to equip himself for it and continued it with varying degrees of success and with rare interruptions until 1891, when he removed from Richland township to Rochester, and the next year engaged in the real estate business. He owns farms in both Rochester and Richland townships, beside valuable residence property in Rochester. Mr. Biddinger married in this county Nov. 23, 1865, Samantha Jane Fribbett, daughter of the late William Fribbett. The children of this union were: Orpha Belle, who died 1892, aged twenty-three and William H. Mr. and Mrs. Biddinger have an adopted daughter, Blanche Young. Peter Biddinger is a son of Mathias Biddinger, born in Pennsylvania. He moved to Ohio with his father and was married there to Sarah, a daughter of John Enfield. He came to Indiana in 1843. He was killed by an Erie train at Leiters Ford in 1890. His living children are Jonas, William, Elizabeth,

who married Rev. James Walls, Peter and Jesse. The Biddingers are staunch republicans and are among Fulton county's best citizens.

FRANKLIN PIERCE BITTERS, M. D., was born at Bloomsburg, Pa., Oct. 25, 1852. His parents were William and Elizabeth C. (Kuhn) Bitters. The father was born in Pennsylvania, the mother in Fulton county, Ind. William Bitters was a brick mason by trade, and in 1856 he came to Peru, Ind., and there worked at his trade for awhile. Subsequently he came to Fulton county, where he met and married Elizabeth C. Kuhn, with whom he settled in Rochester in 1858. Their son was given a common school education. He learned the brick mason's trade under his father, but at the age of seventeen he began teaching school. In June, 1876, he graduated from Northern Indiana Normal school, at Valparaiso, completing a scientific course. Immediately he went to Louisville, Ky., where he entered the Kentucky school of medicine, whence he graduated in June, 1879. He began the practice of his profession at Claypool, Ind., but remained there only a short time. January, 1880, he located at Rensselaer, Ind., where he successfully practiced for eleven years. At West Lafayette, Ind., in 1883, he married Anna May Stockton, a lady of intellectual and moral culture, and of strong force of character. She bore him three children, but, alas, death called the wife and mother and her children away, in the years 1890-91. Having been sadly bereft of his family Dr. Bitters felt the loss so keenly that he became discontented with living in Rensselaer, the scene of his loss, and in 1891 he became a resident of Rochester, where he has continued to practice his profession.

MAJOR BITTERS.—During the month of roses, in 1820, John Bitters, the son of a German soldier, who chose death rather than subservience to George IV., was united in marriage at Martin's Creek, Northampton county, Pa., with Miss Sarah Ann Major, a young lady of Scotch parentage, to whom were born eleven children, Maj. Bitters, the subject of this sketch, being the eighth child and fourth son, born Sept. 21, 1835. When but eleven years of age Major Bitters went forth to earn an independent livelihood, and until 1854, when he took an apprenticeship at the Gazette office, in Berwick, Pa., he paid his parents over three hundred dollars out of his very meager earnings. In less than one year's time he was advanced to the foremanship of the office and at the commencement of the Buchanan presidential campaign, in 1856, published a campaign paper at Bloomsburg, Pa., with Frank Snyder as financial partner. Before election day the "Campaigner" suspended for want of patronage and the material was moved to Orangeville, Pa., where the publication of the Orangeville Democrat was established by the same firm, but the revenue was not sufficient to prevent a treasury deficit, and Major resolved to accept the advice just offered by Horace Greeley—to go west and grow up with the country. As foreman of the Democrat (which was a republican paper) at Danville, Pa., he earned sufficient

means to carry him to Indianapolis, Ind., where he served a few weeks on the Journal, and thence to Peru, about Christmas time in 1856, where he resided until the 6th of October, 1873. During his residence in Peru, on the 4th day of March, 1858, he was united in marriage to Miss Maria Rose, to whom were born three sons and one daughter. Two sons died in childhood. Albert and Maggie are yet living, both married and residents of Rochester. Major enlisted as a private soldier in Company K, One Hundred and Fifty-fifth Indiana volunteers, which was mustered in at Indianapolis in February, 1865, and mustered out at Dover, Del., in August of the same year. But most of his time in the army was given as second leader of a regimental brass band. Under his skillful services the Peru Republican developed from an insignificant country paper, printed on a hand press, to its present proud proportions. The purchase of the Rochester Union Spy was a venture that no one with a less degree of adhesiveness would have undertaken, but the debt incurred was paid in due time and the office and the paper very much improved. Three years later he sold the Spy office and purchased the Union office at Rensselaer and changed the name to Rensselaer Republican. In July, 1880, he sold out and returned to Rochester, engaging in the real estate business with A. C. Elliott. In 1882 he established the Rochester Tribune, which he sold to W. I. Howard & Son a year later. In November, 1884, he repurchased the Spy office, which under the management of W. H. Mattingly & Bro. had been rechristened the Rochester Republican. On the 5th day of February, 1886, he added the publication of the Rochester Daily Republican, now in its eleventh volume, of which, together with the Weekly Republican, M. Bitters & Son are the sole proprietors. In 1892 they purchased the Rochester Tribune and consolidated it with the Republican. Major Bitters is a successful editor and publisher, but the principal qualification he possesses is adhesiveness. Early and late he is engaged in looking after the welfare of his paper, and largely through his progressive ideas Rochester has developed from the usual old-time conditions of a country village to an admirable little city, well ordered and beautified with elegant residences, commodious churches, school houses and other metropolitan advantages of which the people are justly proud. Politically Major Bitters was born and raised a democrat, and remained such until the democratic attempt at the extension of slavery, which aroused him to the support of John C. Fremont and soon after he identified himself with the republican party. Religiously he was born and raised a Presbyterian, but at maturity he united with the Methodist church and was an active worker for twenty-five years. In 1880 he commenced the study of evolution as presented by Darwin, Huxley, Spencer and others, and this knowledge is steadfastly maintained.

JOHN W. BLACK, an ex-commissioner of Fulton county, and for fifteen years superintendent of the county poor farm, is a native

of Fairfield county, Ohio, born March 10, 1838; son of John and Elizabeth (Meehling) Black. The father of Mr. Black was born in Germany and died in Ohio, and his mother was born in Westmoreland county, Pa., and at seventy-six years of age died in Henry county, Ohio. Mr. Black, the subject of this review, attended the public schools in Ohio, and there he also learned the carpenter's trade. In 1857, Mr. Black came to Fulton county, Ind., and Jan. 26 of that year he located in New Castle township, where he worked at his trade during the summer season, and taught school during the winter, for five years. The major part of the life of Mr. Black has been devoted to agricultural interests, and in December, 1877, he was appointed superintendent of the poor farm of Fulton county, and in this capacity he continued until March, 1893. All through his long term of service he gave the utmost satisfaction, and the time which he held office is itself positive proof of his undoubted ability to properly care for the poor unfortunates and manage the farm to obtain the best results. In politics Mr. Black is a democrat and, as such, he served the county faithfully and well as a commissioner for five years. During his term as commisioner the county poor house was built, at a cost of \$10,000, and also the first iron bridge in the county was erected over the Tippecanoe river. While a resident of New Castle township he served for seven years as trustee. In 1894 he was the nominee of his party for county auditor, but went down with the entire county ticket, in the "land slide" at the election of that year. Mr. Black is now residing on his farm of seventy acres, two miles south of Rochester. He was united in marriage Sept. 30, 1860, to Miss Mary Taylor, who was born in Ohio. To them were born these two children: George and Nora, now Mrs. Bruce Low. Mr. Black has been a Mason since 1865, and an I. O. O. F. since 1872. He and wife are members of the Lutheran church. He is a man of pleasing manner and one whose honesty and integrity have never been questioned, and who to-day is one of the most popular men in Fulton county.

JOSHUA BLACKETOR, a resident of Fulton county since 1837, was born in Decatur county, Ind., in 1827, and is a son of Norman and Patsey (Hoobery) Blacketor. The father of Mr. Blacketor was born in Kentucky and died in Fulton county, Ind., about forty-one years ago, and the mother, a native of the same state, died in this county some forty-four years ago. Mr. Blacketor is the tenth in a family of twelve children, only three of whom are living at this time. Mr. Blacketor was reared upon the farm and farming has been his life occupation. He now owns a good farm of ninety-two acres about four miles southeast of Rochester. This land was entered by his father from the government, and the first deed for it is now in the possession of Mr. Joshua Blacketor. Mr. Blacketor was united in marriage in 1850 to Susan J. Babcock, a native of Indiana. To this marriage relation there are four living children, viz.:

Thomas B., Sarah Ann, Elizabeth M., and James B. The political support of Mr. Blacketer has always been given to the democratic party. All through his residence of fifty-nine years in this county Mr. Blacketer has been known as a man of sterling worth and his friends are legion.

ABEL F. BOWERS, a contractor and builder, was born in Allen county, Ohio, Jan. 28, 1852, and is a son of William P. Bowers, whose death occurred in January, 1892. On account of the death of the mother Mr. Bowers was raised by Solomon Slusser, who for the last twelve years has resided with Mr. Bowers. After attending the public schools in Ohio for some time he came to Fulton county in June, 1868, and during the winter of 1868-69 he was a student at a country school. In the spring of 1869 he came to Rochester and began learning the mason trade in the employ of C. P. Hinman. During the winter of 1869-70 he attended the Rochester schools and prepared himself for teaching. Thereafter for twelve winters he taught school in this county and worked at his trade during the other seasons of the year. For thirteen years past he has been engaged in the contracting and building business; all work done with cement being his specialty. Specimens of his work can be seen in Northern Indiana towns and in Chicago. His marriage took place in February, 1875, to Miss Pauline McQuern, born Oct. 5, 1856, in Fulton county, Ind., and a daughter of James and Martha McQuern, of whom the former was born in Virginia and the latter in Ohio. To Mr. and Mrs. Bowers are these two children, viz.: L. G., born July 22, 1876, and Bessie, born Oct. 14, 1883. In politics Mr. Bowers has been a life-long republican, and in 1892 was chairman of the republican central committee of this county. He has held the offices of assessor and justice of the peace. He is a pronounced believer in protection. Mr. Bowers is a member of the Masonic fraternity and Fredonia lodge, No. 122, K. of P. He deserves the success he has earned.

CHARLES WILLIAM BRACKETT.—The gentleman whose name introduces this mention, is a native of Fulton county, Ind., born in the city of Rochester in 1802, and is a son of Dr. Charles and Margaret Brackett, now Mrs. Gould. He first attended the public schools and later graduated from the Rochester high school and then spent one year at Earlham college, at Richmond, Ind., after which he spent two years at the university of Michigan. He returned to Rochester and in 1884 engaged in the lumber business, which he continued until 1896, and then began the livery business. Mr. Brackett was married in 1885 to Miss Ella Mercer, of this county. They have three children, viz.: Mary, Bernice and Ruth. In politics he is a republican and is a member of Fredonia lodge, No. 122, K. of P. He is a man popular with his fellows and possesses good business ability.

LYMAN M. BRACKETT, president of the Citizens' State bank

November he returned home on account of sickness. While at home he received a commission from Gov. Yates, of Illinois, as surgeon of the Ninth Illinois cavalry regiment, which was organized by his brother, Col. A. G. Brackett. He joined the regiment at Camp Douglas, and from there went into Missouri and Arkansas, and continued in the service until the time of his death, which occurred Feb. 20, 1863, at Helena, Ark. A detail was granted to convey his body home to Rochester. Of the above named Ninth Illinois regiment his brother, Albert G. Brackett, was colonel; his brother, Joseph Brackett, was commissary; his brother, James Brackett, was assistant surgeon, while he, as stated above, was surgeon. Dr. Charles Brackett's father was James Brackett, who was born at Lee, N. H., March 31, 1782, and whose father, Joseph Brackett, a native of New Hampshire, was a first lieutenant of cavalry in the Revolutionary war. Dr. Brackett's father was graduated from Dartmouth college in the class of 1805. He became a lawyer and located at Cherry Valley, N. Y., in 1808. One year later he married Eliza Maria (Bennett) Ely, at Philadelphia, and for forty-one years thereafter he practiced law at Cherry Valley, where his family of seven sons and one daughter were reared. Dr. Charles Brackett was married in 1851 to Margaret Wilson, who was born at Rome, N. Y. Her father, William Wilson, was a native of Glasgow, Scotland. At a very early date he removed from New York to Fulton county, and settled near Kewanna. Unto Dr. Charles Brackett and wife were born the following children: Louisa, Lyman M., Rosanna, Mary and Charles W. In 1869, the widowed mother of these five children became the wife of the late E. E. Cowgill, who in his day was one of the best and most useful citizens of Fulton county. Unto his marriage to Mrs. Dr. Charles Brackett were born two children; the first, a son, died at the age of five years; the second, a daughter, Edith, survives as his only descendant. His widow became the wife of Dr. Vernon Gould, of Rochester, and is still living. Mr. Cowgill was born near Wilmington, Clinton county, Ohio, April 21, 1830. He was a son of Asa and Margaret Cowgill. His parents and grandparents were Virginians, of English lineage. Mr. Cowgill became an orphan at a very early age, and was reared by his father's brother. He made his first business adventure at Peru, Ind., where he met with but indifferent success. At Peru he married, in 1862, Miss Nellie Rayburn, who lived but a year after the event, and bore him no children. Shortly after the war Mr. Cowgill located in Rochester, and engaged in the lumber trade, in which he continued to the time of his death, which occurred Aug. 1, 1882. He was very successful in business, and at the time of his death had accumulated large wealth. He was beloved by all who knew him. In him the subject of this sketch, together with his brother and sisters, found a generous friend and kind father, when he became the husband of their widowed mother. To his example, counsel and assistance

they ascribe a large share of the advantages they have enjoyed, and in return they cherish his memory as a rich heritage.

DAVID BRIGHT is a native son of Fulton county and one of its most progressive and popular citizens. He was born July 17, 1846, and belongs to one of the pioneer families of this locality. His grandparents, David and Fannie Bright, were natives of Kentucky and of English lineage. In 1833 they removed to Wayne county, Ind. Their second son, William Bright, who was born in Kentucky Oct. 12, 1821, accompanied them to the Hoosier state, and on March 18, 1841, married Mahala Lane, daughter of Isaiah Lane, a native of Virginia. In 1844 they came to Fulton county, and their home was brightened by the presence of six children—Milo, John, David, Fannie, Adeline and William H. Adeline is the widow of Irvin Black. David Bright was reared in the parental home and received only such educational privileges as were afforded in the primitive log school house of the frontier. He was married Feb. 16, 1871, to Frederica, daughter of Andrew Gast, a native of Bavaria, and a shoemaker by trade. Her father was married in New York city, and after some years' residence in Fremont, Ohio, came in 1853 to Akron, Ind., where he died Sept. 14, 1876. His wife passed away a month later. Mr. and Mrs. Bright have four children—Homer A., aged twenty-three, and Daisy E., aged nineteen, both engaged in teaching; Maud, fourteen year of age; and Ernest, a lad of twelve. At the time of his marriage David Bright began farming on his own account. He built a little cabin in the woods, and began the arduous task of hewing out a farm in the midst of the forest. He had not even a team, but borrowed a horse as he had need for it. The next season his father gave him one, but it died just at the time when he had most use for it. By work at the carpenter's trade he secured the money necessary to improve his farm. Where once stood the dense forest are now seen waving fields of grain, and the little log cabin has been replaced by a comfortable and pleasant residence, while substantial barns and other outbuildings have been erected, adding materially to the value of this fine farm. Mr. Bright has been called to serve the public in the capacity of township trustee, having been elected as a democratic candidate in 1890, although the district is strongly republican, a fact which indicates his personal popularity. He is a progressive man, and has caused to be erected new bridges and school houses, including the fine school building in Akron, which will stand as a monument to his foresight for many years to come.

DR. ANGUS BROWN, of Rochester, comes directly from the Gaelic through his father, Hugh Brown, born in the Highlands of Scotland. Hugh Brown emigrated from his native land in 1832, and joined his thousands of countrymen in the queen's dominion on this side of the Atlantic. He brought with him his devoted wife, nee Christina McEachren,

and domiciled in Glengary county, Lower Canada. He re-engaged in farming, the pursuit of his boyhood, and provided comfortably for and educated plainly his large family. Of his sixteen children the following are living: Catherine, wife of Robert Thacker, North Dakota; Hugh, Morgan Park, Ill.; Niel, Buffalo, N. Y.; Margaret, wife of a Mr. Coleman, London, Canada, and John, Strathroy, Canada. The father died in 1867, aged eighty-eight. Dr. Angus Brown was the twelfth child. His birth occurred in Glengary county, Feb. 14, 1832. He chose medicine as his profession and about 1860 became a student in the homeopathic medical college at Cleveland, Ohio. He engaged in practice in 1863 in London, Canada, where he remained till coming to Rochester in 1869, being the first permanent physician of his school in the county. The doctor is a member of the state medical society. He has served a number of years as a member of the school board in Rochester, and manifested a deep concern for the cause of public education. Dr. Brown's first wife was Jane McArthur, whom he married in Canada. Their children are: Mary C., a teacher in Trinidad, Col., who engaged in the work when she was sixteen; Hugh, manager in Chicago for a Boston school-book concern, is a graduate of the university of Michigan and was for two years assistant state superintendent of public instruction of that state. Dougald, a merchant in Pontiac, Mich.; Catherine, wife of a Mr. Floyd, of Trinidad, Col.; Jane, wife of William Seller, Kokomo, Ind. Mrs. Brown died in 1867. The doctor's second marriage was in 1871 to Mrs. Lucy A. Shafer, a daughter of Chichester Chinn, a pioneer farmer in Fulton, and who died some forty years ago. This union resulted in four children: William M., married Nettie Owen; John B., Pontiac, Mich.; Archie and Edna. Dr. Brown has been a member of the Christian church since eighteen years of age.

WILLIAM BROWN, a leading farmer of Liberty township, is also one of Fulton county's pioneers. He was born in Pleasants county, W. Va., Oct. 20, 1847. He came to Fulton county ten years later and grew to manhood on a part of the farm he owns. His education was of the district sort of the days before the war. He started out for himself at twenty years of age on a twenty-acre tract of his own and aided in the cultivation of his father's farm. In a few years he bought the partly improved place of Samuel Stibbs, containing 120 acres. He has erected a commodious residence and other buildings, reduced much of the land to a producing state and purchased enough additional to make him 280 acres. Mr. Brown was married first April 9, 1868, to Mary Catherine, daughter of John Syes, who came to Indiana from Preble county, Ohio. Mrs. Brown died in May, 1869, leaving one child, John D., who is married to Annie Buckley and resides on the farm. Jan. 9, 1876, Mr. Brown married Margaret Ann Gregory. The children of this union are: William E., Walter A., Mary Hester, Arthur Lee, Charles E. and

Otto Glen. Our subject's father was John Brown. He was born in Pleasants county, W. Va., 1823, and died in Fulton county in 1877, leaving a fair estate. He was a democrat and a plain, worthy citizen. He married Elizabeth Bills, who is yet residing on the old homestead, and is seventy-two years of age. Her children are: Susana, wife of William Young, William, Martha J., married to William Floyd, and Elizabeth. Our subject's paternal grandfather was Josiah Brown. William Brown belongs to the democratic party and has served as supervisor.

ABRAHAM BRUCE, a young and enterprising farmer, residing in Union township, was born on the farm he owns and cultivates. The date of his birth was April 2, 1858. Mr. Bruce is a son of one of the pioneer settlers of Fulton county. He is a son of Abraham and Sarah A. Bruce. His father died in the year 1874, at the age of sixty-three years, and was buried in Bruce's Lake cemetery. Mr. Bruce's mother is still living and resides with him on the old homestead. Her maiden name was Sarah A. Hoch, daughter of Samuel and Helena Hoch. She was born in Union county, Pa., July 31, 1819. Her husband was born also in Pennsylvania, May 16, 1811. He and she were married in their native state in 1835, and emigrated to this county in the fall of 1837, and settled near Bruce's lake. In the spring of 1838 they located on the old homestead now owned by the subject of this mention. He entered eighty acres at first, then later entered other lands, and finally owned 1,160 acres at the time of his death. He was a blacksmith by trade, and together with farming followed his trade throughout life. He came to this county with the limited capital of \$50, but he practiced industry, enterprise and frugality and by these means grew prosperous. Politically he was a republican. From an early date he and wife were members of the Evangelical church. Unto these hardy pioneers and respectable citizens the following children were born: Daniel, Isabella, Harriet, deceased; Sarah, deceased; Robert, deceased; Julia, deceased; Abraham, Stephen and Ella M. Abraham, like others of his brothers and sisters, was reared on the farm. He has always lived on the old home place and followed farming. In 1878 he married Mary E., daughter of George and Catherine Dellenger, of Pulaski county. Mrs. Bruce was born in Ohio, but when young was brought to Pulaski county by her parents. The home of Mr. and Mrs. Bruce has been blessed by the birth of two children, viz., Arthur C. and another that died in infancy. Politically Mr. Bruce is a republican and both he and his wife are members of the Evangelical church.

BENJAMIN BRUCE, an ex-treasurer of Fulton county, was born in this county Oct. 12, 1845. In Sept. 8, 1798, Jacob Bruce was born in the state of Pennsylvania. His death occurred in Fulton county Jan. 13, 1872. Jacob was a son of John Bruce, born in Scotland. John Bruce, after coming to America, settled at Philadel-

phia, where he plied his trade, that of a timber, grew prosperous and lived many years. He had several sons and daughters, of whom the following came to Fulton county, and here died. The first to come was Stephen Bruce, who came in 1837, and settled at the southeast corner of what is now called Bruce lake, in Union township. The lake received its name in his honor, but was called Kewanna by the Indians, in honor of one of their chiefs. In 1840 the above named Jacob Bruce came to the county and settled in the southwest corner of Aubbeenaubbee township. His sister and her husband, George Ultz, came to the county still later. In Pennsylvania Jacob Bruce married Hettie, a daughter of Christophal Wentzel, the father of Edward Wentzel, of whom mention is made elsewhere in this volume. Hettie Bruce, nee Wentzel, was born in Pennsylvania, Sept. 9, 1809. She died in this county, Sept. 11, 1871. She bore her husband the following offspring: Louisa, deceased; Edward, deceased; Mary, deceased; Benjamin, the subject of this mention; Elizabeth, Caroline, deceased; and Elizabeth. The father of these children became an extensive farmer and was for many years one of the substantial and leading citizens of the county. On his old homestead the subject of this sketch now resides. He and his good wife were life-long members of the Evangelical church, and brought their family up in that church. Benjamin Bruce has always resided in Aubbeenaubbee township, and devoted his life to successful farming. In politics he has adhered to the principles of the democratic party. In 1890 he was elected treasurer of the county, an office he acceptably filled for one term, refusing to make a second race for the office. Oct. 1, 1868, Mr. Bruce married Mary J., daughter of William and Malinda (Lee) Moon, pioneer settlers in the county. Mr. and Mrs. Bruce have had four children, viz.: Jacob, who lived to the age of nineteen years; Willie, who died one year old; Nellie, the one surviving child, and Hettie, who died aged nine years. Mr. Bruce has lived an industrious, moral and honest life, and has won the esteem of many friends.

GEORGE W. BRUGH was born in Aubbeenaubbee township May 19, 1856. His father, Joseph Brugh, was born in Seneca county, Ohio, Sept. 28, 1822. He removed from Ohio to Steuben county, then to Fulton county, in which he settled on a farm adjoining the present farm of George W. Here his death occurred March 29, 1874. When he came to this county he came by wagon, and owned a span of horses, a wagon, and possessed but \$2.50. He grew prosperous, and at the time of his death owned a good farm of 160 acres. His widow now resides with her son, James B. Brugh, whose personal sketch is given elsewhere in this work. Joseph Brugh became the father of ten children, viz.: George W., James B., Arabella, Albert M., Edward, Lillie, Elmer, Nannie, deceased; Lucy, deceased, and Laura. All the living children are residents of Fulton county. George W., the

immediate subject of this personal sketch, remained at the parental home until he reached the age of twenty-three years. Oct. 30, 1879, he married Francis E. Hunter, daughter of Lane and Julia Hunter. This marriage has been blessed by the birth of three children, viz.: Virle, deceased; Harry O., and Oscar R., deceased. Mr. Brugh and his wife are members of the Methodist church, and in politics he has adhered to democracy. Though he began life as a poor man, Mr. Brugh has been very successful as a tiller of the soil and stock-raiser.

JAMES B. BRUGH, a son of Joseph Brugh and a brother of George W. Brugh, who is mentioned above, was born in Aubbeent-antbee township, Fulton county, on April 24, 1857. He remained under the parental roof until he was twenty years of age, and worked on the farm with his father and brothers. He began life for himself at the above age, as a partner with his brother, George W., at farming. Subsequently the partnership was dissolved and since Mr. Brugh has farmed alone. He has prospered and now owns an excellent farm of 160 acres. His aged mother resides with him, as has been noted in the sketch of George, his brother. Mr. Brugh has always been a staunch democrat, politically. He is a member of the fraternal order known as the Knights of Maccabees. He is a representative citizen, industrious and persevering, and has won the reputation of being such in the estimation of all who know him.

NOAH BRUMBAUGH, a representative farmer and citizen of Fulton county, is a native of Fairfield county, Ohio, and was born March 16, 1834. His parents were Isaac and Catherine (Zerkle) Brumbaugh. The father was born in West Virginia in 1803, and died at the home of the subject of this sketch, in this county, in 1884. He was a son of David Brumbaugh, who was of German parentage. Mr. Brumbaugh's mother was born in old Virginia. She bore her husband twelve children, of whom five are now living. The home of the family was in Fairfield county, Ohio. The father was a farmer by occupation and was a highly respected citizen. Noah Brumbaugh's youth was spent on the farm and farming has been his main pursuit. In youth his educational advantages were very poor, but through the avenues of books and papers he has become well informed on many subjects of general interest, and no man stands a warmer friend of education than does Mr. Brumbaugh. He remained under the parental roof until he was nineteen years old. Learning the carriage-makers' trade, he followed the same for about eight years, with the exception of the time he has been a tiller of the soil. At farming he has been very successful. He came to Fulton county in 1864, and located on his present farm near Kewanna. Mr. Brumbaugh and Maria Apt were united in marriage in 1862, in Fairfield county, Ohio, where she was born. Unto the union the following children have been born: Cora, once a teacher, now wife of William Mason, of Kewanna; Prof. Jesse F., graduate of DePauw

university, now principal of Brown's Valley, Minn. schools; Orpha May, graduate of Depauw university, now teaching; Nevada, teacher; David, and Gertrude. Mr. and Mrs. Brumbaugh are members of the Methodist Episcopal church, and enjoy the esteem of a wide circle of friends.

GEORGE K. BRUNDIGE, county recorder, was born in Wabash county, Ind., Aug. 17, 1859, a son of Uriah Brundige, born in Ohio in 1813, and died in 1879. His life work was devoted to agriculture and was passed largely in Wabash county. He was successful and accumulated a snug competency while yet in health. He was educated poorly, but possessed an active mind and kept himself well informed through current literature. John Brundige was his father, and a Scotch ancestry is directly referred to with much pride. Uriah Brundige married Elizabeth McGovern, whose children were: John Brundige, Missouri Valley, Iowa; William, died at twenty-two; Martha, married T. Porter, New Orleans, La.; Phoebe, died young; George K., Morton, Missouri Valley, Iowa; Byron, died young, and Novilla. Besides the ungraded schools George K. Brundige spent one year at Terre Haute, in order to better equip himself to battle with the world. He spent two years on a farm upon leaving school. He was then employed as a clerk in a hardware store, later worked for Patterson Bros. of Akron, this county, in the same capacity. In 1886 took the contract for getting out ties and other railroad stuff in this county for Powell & Lord, of Chicago. He engaged next in the insurance and real estate business, with a commission as notary public. In November, 1894, was elected to his present office by a majority of 105, and took his office a year later, for a term of four years. Aug. 27, 1886, Mr. Brundige married at Akron, Ind., Ina, a daughter of Jacob Whittenberger, of Pennsylvania German birth, whose wife was Mary McCloud. Mr. and Mrs. Brundige are the parents of one child, Harry L., born June 10, 1887, and died April 19, 1894. Mr. Brundige is making a record as a careful and efficient official, and renders satisfactory service as Fulton county's recorder.

ELMER JULIAN BUCHANAN, proprietor of the Grass Creek elevator, first saw the light of day in Fairfield county, Ohio, on April 3, 1862. Mr. Buchanan's parents were James H. and Anna W. (Macklin) Buchanan, of whom mention is made elsewhere in this volume in the biography of P. M. Buchanan. When Mr. Buchanan was but two years old, his parents settled in Wayne township, this county, and six years later the family returned to Ohio, and, after a stay of about four years in that state, returned to Wayne township. After attending the common schools, Mr. Buchanan attended the high school of Rochester, and then the Northern Indiana Normal for three terms. For eleven years he taught school, beginning at the age of eighteen. In June, 1891, he and D. F. Rans entered into a partnership in the grain and tile business at Grass

Creek. At the end of one year Mr. Buchanan purchased the interest of Mr. Rams, since which time he has conducted the business successfully, dealing in grain, flour, tile and salt. Aug. 30, 1892, Mr. Buchanan married Miss Florence V., daughter of John H. and Sarah Weyand, of Cass county. Politically he has been a staunch democrat, and in 1894-95 served as committeeman for the west precinct of Wayne township.

PETER MACKLIN BUCHANAN, attorney at law, Rochester, Ind., was born in Fairfield county, Ohio, Feb. 3, 1856. He is a son of James H. and Ann M. (Macklin) Buchanan. His father was born in Virginia in 1830. He died in Fulton county, Ind., in 1892. He was of Scotch descent. Mr. Buchanan's mother descended from Pennsylvania Dutch, was born in Ohio in 1835. She died in Fulton county in 1893. These parents were married in Fairfield county, Ohio, whence they removed to Fulton county in 1865. Subsequently they returned to Fairfield county, where they lived for four years. Then they returned to Fulton county, in which county they ever afterward lived. They had six children, of which three are dead. Their son, whose name introduces this brief biographical mention, was reared on the farm. His education was obtained in the country schools, the graded schools of Kewanna and the Northern Indiana Normal school. He began school teaching when nineteen years of age and taught up to 1883. He first began the study of law in 1879. He was admitted to the bar in June, 1883. He served as justice of the peace for some three or four years, then began an active practice of the law. He has gained a good clientage and ranks among the best of his profession in the county. In 1883 Mr. Buchanan wedded Miss Maggie J. Richeson. The marriage has been blessed by the birth of two sons, namely, Blythe and Harry. Mr. Buchanan is identified with the democratic party, and is a member of the Knights of Pythias order. He and his wife are members of the Methodist Episcopal church.

SAMUEL BURCH, of Liberty township, is one of the substantial pioneers of Fulton county. He was born in Allen county, Ohio, Jan. 10, 1836. Arnold Burch, his father, was born in New England. He came to Ohio early in the century, and resided for a time at Cincinnati. He secured a contract for the construction of a part of the Cincinnati & Erie canal and moved his family to Montgomery and later to Allen county. He descended the Ohio river on a flatboat and went into Cincinnati when it contained only one blacksmith shop. He came to Fulton county in 1841, and died on the farm of S. Burch in 1863, aged over seventy. He was a successful farmer; was a whig and then a republican; was married to Mary Ewin, who became the mother of: Anna, widow of John Hoover, Chicago; Levi, this county; Sarah, deceased, married to John Patrick; William, deceased; Zora, widow of William Buck; Rhoda, deceased, married to C. R. Green; Elizabeth, married to B. Chapin.

both deceased, and Samuel. The last named secured a limited district school education. He purchased the old homestead of the heirs and has enlarged its area until now he has one of the most desirable homes in Liberty township and conducts his farm on the most approved methods. He was married first in the fall of 1862 to Sarah, daughter of Enos Hoover. She died in 1869. Soon following after the death of his wife Mr. Burch went to Iowa and spent one summer, engaged in bridge building. The next year he drove from here through to Kansas and the Indian territory on a prospecting tour and outing. May 7, 1871, after his return from the west, he married Amanda, daughter of Jacob Thompson. Their only child is Essie, wife of Albert Miller. Mr. Burch is a radical republican; is one of the moulders of sentiment as to party management in his township, and has frequently been solicited to allow his name to be used as a candidate in connection with some county office, but has persistently declined.

ISAAC BUSENBURG, one of the most progressive and substantial agriculturists of New Castle township, has demonstrated by his well spent life that success is not a matter of genius, but the reward of earnest, persistent labor, guided by good management. It is these qualities that have made him one of the prosperous farmers of Fulton county. He was born in Knox county, Ohio, April 12, 1831, a son of Peter and Nancy (Wharton) Busenburg. His father was born in Knox county, Ohio, about 1802, and died there in 1852, while the mother passed away in Fulton county, in 1879, at the age of seventy-two. Their living children are Hugh, of Green county, Ind.; Mrs. Rebecca Henry, of Fulton county; David, of Knox county, Ohio; Isaac; John, of Marion county, Iowa; and Phoebe, wife of John Scott, of Marion county, Iowa. Isaac Busenburg early became inured to the hardships of pioneer life and to the practical work of the farm. On attaining his majority he was married, going in debt eleven dollars for his wedding garments. Working by the day, he was enabled to purchase a yoke of oxen and a horse, and renting land he then began farming, cutting his hay and grain with a scythe. Removing to Fulton county, Indiana, he had barely enough money to pay the expenses of the trip. In 1860 he purchased forty acres of heavily timbered land and built a log cabin on a small clearing, at the same time entering upon the career which has marked him as an industrious, successful and honorable farmer. As his financial resources increased, he added to his land until he had two hundred and eighty acres, but he has since given sixty acres to each of his sons, who reside near him. The yield of his fields is not excelled in the township, and all of the accessories of a model farm are found upon his place. His knowledge of the best methods of draining land led to his appointment in 1881 as ditch commissioner for four years. He put in a good system of ditches in every part of the county, and then resigned after three years' service. His ex-

penditure of public funds was necessarily large, but very judicious, and won him the commendation of all concerned. On Dec. 17, 1855, Mr. Busenburg was married in Knox county, Ohio, to Rhoda, daughter of George Starkey. She died leaving a son, David. For his second wife our subject chose Nancy Dunlap, and they have one son, P. W. Mr. Busenburg is a democrat of the old school, and both he and his wife are consistent members of the Baptist church, and have many warm friends throughout the community.

PETER BUSENBURG, in his thirty-three years' residence in Fulton county has won a place among its prosperous farmers and most highly respected citizens, for his life has been such as to win him the public confidence and regard. He comes from that sturdy and valued German stock that settled in Pennsylvania during the latter part of the eighteenth century, and is a son of David Busenburg, who was born in Cumberland county, that state, in 1806. His mother bore the maiden name of Mary Dennis. She was born in 1811, and was married at the age of twenty-one. For many years the parents resided in Knox county, Ohio, and there Peter, their first child, was born Dec. 13, 1833. Their other children now living are Barbara, wife of Edward Hatfield, of Pulaski county, Kan.; Martha, wife of Hiram Messersmith, of Montgomery county, Ind.; Elizabeth, wife of E. Messersmith, of Pulaski county, Ind.; Eliza, wife of Aaron Kesler, of Marshall county, and Michael, who is living in Wilson county, Kan. The educational facilities which Peter Busenburg enjoyed were extremely limited, yet he made the most of his opportunities, and has supplemented the knowledge gained in school by reading and by that practical experience which life's lessons always bring, and which have made him a well informed man. He was married Feb. 1, 1857, in Coshocton county, Ohio, to Lavina Meredith, daughter of Isaac Meredith. She died Jan. 8, 1890, leaving five children: Jonathan and Isaac M., who are farmers of Fulton county; Tinsey, wife of L. T. Barkman, of Henry township; Mahala, wife of L. D. Pentecost, of Noble county, Ind.; and D. E., principal of the schools of Dawson county, Montana. In November, 1891, Mr. Busenburg married Sarah Bybee, daughter of Pleasant Bybee, who came to Indiana from Fayette county, Ohio. Our subject became a resident of Fulton county in 1863, and purchased one hundred acres of timber land from Hiram Troutman. He immediately began the task of clearing a place on which to raise a crop of corn. In the third of a century, which has since passed, almost the entire forest has been cleared away, the marshes and swampy places have been drained, and where once were trees and unproductive land are now seen fields of grain that tell of abundant harvests. There are also commodious houses and barns replacing the cabin and private stable, and the substantial buildings stand as monuments to the enterprise of the owner. In politics Mr. Busenburg is a democrat, and in religious belief a Baptist.

WILLIAM T. BUTLER, ex-sheriff of Fulton county, and a leading and influential citizen of Rochester, is so well and favorably known throughout this section of the state that he needs no special introduction to our readers. A native son of Indiana, he was born in Miami county, June 7, 1839, a son of William and Nancy E. (Meek) Butler, the former a native of Georgia, and the latter of Rockingham county, Va. They were descended from Irish stock, and after their marriage located in Indiana. They removed from Henry county to Miami county, and in 1843 became residents of Fulton county, where two years later the father died. The mother afterward married Minor Allen, and her death occurred in Fulton, in 1862, when she had reached the age of forty-five years. The children were: W. T., John W., of Miami county, and Sarah, who died in childhood. William T. Butler spent his boyhood days upon his father's farm and acquired his education in a primitive log school house, such as is found on the frontier, where the school was conducted on the subscription plan. When a youth of fourteen he began learning the blacksmith's trade in Fulton, Ind., under the direction of Norman L. Sterns, and on completing his apprenticeship went to Middletown, Henry county, where he carried on business on his own account. While there residing he was married, Dec. 28, 1859, to Catherine Phillips, who was born in Augusta county, Va., July 4, 1837, a daughter of David and Nancy (Weeks) Phillips, of the Old Dominion. Mr. and Mrs. Butler's living children are: Warren J., who for fourteen years was deputy sheriff of Fulton county and is now in Toledo, Ohio; Minor A., also of Toledo; Mary, wife of George Black, of Rochester; Winona, wife of John Hoover, of Rochester; and Nellie. In 1871 Mr. Butler engaged in farming in Liberty township, and profitably and uninterruptedly continued that pursuit until 1880, when his fellow-citizens, appreciating his worth and ability, called him from private life to public office. Against seven competitors he received the nomination for sheriff, and in November was elected to that office, despite the opposition of the saloon element of his own party and the presence of two other candidates in the field. His administration of the affairs of the office was most commendable. The evil doer expected no mercy at his hands and he filled the jail with criminals of all classes who had hitherto infested the county, bringing to punishment as many as seven hundred during his term. So faithfully did he discharge his duties that he was re-elected by a larger majority than was given him in 1880. He retired from office as he had entered it, with the good will, respect and confidence of all law-abiding citizens. Before retiring from office Mr. Butler became interested in the hardware business as a partner of Mr. Stockberger, but he is now devoting his attention to business in connection with his farms. He is the possessor of considerable property acquired through his own efforts and is accounted one of the substantial citizens of the community.

He is a valued member of the Masonic order and its auxiliary, the Eastern Star; is in good standing in all branches of Odd Fellowship, including the Rebecca lodge, and has membership with the order of Red Men of the Tribe of Pocahontas. His own life is exemplary in the fidelity with which he has discharged every duty, either public or private, and no man in Fulton county is held in more genuine esteem than William T. Butler.

JACOB CAMERER, one of the representative farmers of Fulton county, is a native of Clermont county, Ohio, born Feb. 5, 1824, and is a son of Daniel and Mary (Hill) Camerer, natives respectively of Fleming county, Ky., and Westmoreland county, Pa. The father was born in 1797 and died in Rush county, Ind., in 1887. The mother was born in 1800 and died in the same Indiana county in 1889. The Camerer family left Kentucky in 1807 and settled in Clermont county, Ohio, and in 1812 the Hill family proceeded from the old Pennsylvania commonwealth by way of the Ohio river, upon a flatboat to Clermont county, and here the parents of Jacob Camerer were united in marriage. In 1826 they emigrated to Rush county, Ind., and it can be truthfully stated that representatives of the Camerer family have been pioneers of Kentucky, Ohio and Indiana. Jacob Camerer, of this review, is of German descent, and the third in a family of nine children, of whom five are at this date (1896) living. He was raised upon the farm in Rush county, Ind., where he obtained a common school education. He carried on farming in that county until 1857, when he came to Fulton county and took up his residence, where he now lives, four miles southeast of Rochester. His farm at that time was almost an unbroken forest, but now it is a finely cultivated piece of land. In his neighborhood he at one time owned 350 acres, but he has given to his children so much that now he has only reserved eighty acres. Mr. Camerer was united in marriage in 1852 to Mrs. Olive (Green) Priest, a native of Franklin county, Ind. To this marriage are these four children, viz.: Henry E., Omer G. and Ada M. Politically Mr. Camerer is a democrat, and cast his first presidential vote for Gen. Cass. His views upon finance are to have both a gold and silver standard, and have both metals as legal tenders in paying all debts, and upon the question of the tariff, a revenue sufficient to meet the needs of the government, if those needs are economically administered to. He and wife are members of the M. E. church. Through a residence of nearly forty years in Fulton county, Jacob Camerer has been known as an honorable man and true citizen.

CHRISTOPHER CAMPBELL, of Aubbeenaubbee township, was born in Baltimore, Md., May 20, 1831. His parents were John and Clara (Barcher) Campbell. The father was born in Scotland in 1797, and died in White county, Ill., when nearly ninety years of age. He came to America when eighteen years of age. About two years later his parents and two brothers (Angus and Donald) and

two sisters (Jeanette and Isabella) came to this country. The parents located in Pittsburg, Pa., where their deaths occurred. In Baltimore John Campbell married Clara Barcher, who was born in Amsterdam, Holland, in 1809. She died in White county, Ill., at the age of seventy-seven years. After the marriage of John and Clara Campbell they removed to Sandusky county, Ohio, where they lived nineteen years, and then (1853) came to Fulton county and settled in Aubbeenaubbee township, where they lived about six years. They then moved to southern Illinois, where the remainder of their days was spent. They were members of the Presbyterian church, and pioneers of sterling qualities. They had the following children: Daniel, deceased; Christopher, Angus, John, Edward, deceased; Clara, Jeanette, Nancy, deceased; Sarah and Isabella. The subject of this personal mention is the only one of the family now residing in Fulton county. He was about five years of age when his parents went to Ohio, in which state he grew to manhood, receiving a fair education in the old log school house. His youth was spent in aiding his father on the farm, and from boyhood he has followed farming. Along with his parents he came to this county in 1853, and under the parental roof he remained till he was married at the age of twenty-four years. Mr. Campbell has been married three times. In 1855 he married Angeline Sutley, who bore him a daughter (Angeline, now the wife of O. P. Lanner, of White county, Ill.) Mr. Campbell's second wife was Jeanette Gilerist, who bore him these children: John, deceased; James, and John. In 1867 Mr. Campbell married Rebecca Zuck, and unto this marriage the following children have been born: Charles C., Sarah, Albert, Clara, Barch and Lucretia. Mr. and Mrs. Campbell are members of the Presbyterian church, and he is a member of the I. O. O. F. and is a demitted member of the Masonic fraternity. Politically Mr. Campbell is a staunch republican. He cast his first presidential vote for John C. Fremont. He has never aspired to political office, but has, however, served the county one term as county commissioner.

GEORGE W. CLAYTON, Rochester's efficient town marshal, was born in Fulton county, Ind., July 4, 1860. He was brought up on his father's farm and at twenty years of age decided to change his occupation for one more promising. He placed himself in the hands of Philip Hoot to learn the trade of plasterer. He has made this trade his life work and has resided continuously in Fulton county except four years, when he was temporarily absent, doing work in the states of Kansas, Nebraska, Minnesota and Iowa. May 8, 1885, Mr. Clayton married in Rochester, wedding Minnie Stiglietz, daughter of Christian Stiglietz, now of Chicago. Mr. and Mrs. Clayton's children are: Burney, L. Jay and Marie. Our subject is a son of George W. Clayton, deceased, born at Harper's Ferry, Va., 1815. He emigrated to Ohio in 1834 with his father, John Clayton, who was a miller and who died in Logan county, Ohio. Our sub-

ject's father came to Fulton county in 1841 and married here, wedding Ann Hurd, a Canadian lady. He located east of Rochester, where he died in 1871. George W. Clayton is a republican in politics, and was nominated for his office against several competitors and defeated a popular democrat by 130 votes at the election held May 4, 1896. He is an I. O. O. F. and a K. O. T. M.

NEWTON J. CLYMER, M. D.—The birth of this physician and surgeon occurred March 24, 1837, in Miami county, Ind., where his parents, Joseph and Eliza (Keever) Clymer, settled as early as 1832. The father was a son of Henry Clymer, who was a native of Pennsylvania, and a cousin of George Clymer, of Declaration fame. At the close of the Revolutionary war, in which he was a soldier, he married Miss Phebe Wharton, whose father was also a soldier in the war of Independence. Subsequent to this marriage Henry Clymer came west and located on the Ohio river, becoming one of the early settlers of Cincinnati, where his son, Joseph, our subject's father, was born in 1805. Later he removed to Warren county, Ohio, where his death occurred. He was the father of six sons and five daughters. When the subject of this review was nine years of age his father died, and the care of six children was thrown upon the mother; but possessing that magnificent ingenuity with which woman is ever provided with she managed to keep her family of four sons and two daughters upon the home farm until they reached manhood and womanhood. Dr. N. J. Clymer spent his youth upon the farm. At eighteen years of age he was fortunate enough to be the teacher at a neighboring school. At twenty years of age he began the study of medicine in the office of his brother, Dr. Keever Clymer at Wawpecong, Ind., where he remained for two years, and then located for the practice of his profession in LaSalle county, Ill., but one year later returned to Indiana and located at Bourbon, and in 1862 he came to Fulton county and from that time until the fall of 1893 he was located at Bloomingsburg (now Talma), where for many years he had an extensive practice. Near this place the doctor now owns two valuable farms. Feb. 9, 1860, occurred the marriage of Dr. Clymer to Miss Leonora A. Moore, who was born at Ashtabula, Ohio, Nov. 16, 1844, a daughter of George W. and Elizabeth Moore. When she was but two years of age her parents removed to Canada, and from thence to Detroit, Mich., in August, 1849, in which year her father died, leaving the mother and the following children, viz.: Eli B., Sophronia A., Julia, George W., Anna E., M. Augusta, and Leonora A. Mrs. Clymer received her education at the schools of Buffalo, N. Y., and at Bourbon, Ind. To bless the union of Dr. and Mrs. Clymer there have come four children, viz.: Charles A., George M., Florence and Harry C. Dr. Clymer has taken an active part in social and fraternal affairs. He was one of the organizers of the Masonic lodge, No. 489 and I. O. O. F. lodge, No. 516, at Bloomingsburg. He and wife are members of the order



HON. ISAAH CONNER.

of the Eastern Star and the order of the Daughters of Rebecca. Politically Dr. Clymer is a democrat. But once has the doctor sought political preferment and that was quite a number of years ago, when he was a candidate for joint representative for this county and Pulaski, and on account of the fusion of the republicans with the greenback element he was defeated by fifteen votes. He is a clean man socially and politically, and one whose character and ability stands free and unquestioned. Since November, 1893, the doctor and his amiable wife have been residents of Rochester, and are among its most highly esteemed citizens. Dr. Clymer is a successful physician, is a graduate of the Eclectic medical institute of Cincinnati; since 1870 has been a member of the Eclectic medical association of Indiana, and is a member of the Northwest medical association of Northern Indiana, of which at this time he is treasurer. July 27, 1893, he was appointed examiner for the bureau of pensions at Rochester.

JUDGE ISALAH CONNER, one of the most favorably known citizens of Fulton county, was born in Marion, Ind., Aug. 4, 1835. His parents were Nelson and Sarah (Boots) Conner. The father was born in South Carolina, March 14, 1811, and died near Marion, Ind., March 14, 1889. He was a son of Lewis and Margaret (McLaran) Conner. Lewis Conner was a native of South Carolina, and of Irish lineage. His wife was born in Scotland. He was the father of six sons and three daughters. He was a pioneer settler of Grant county, Ind., in which county he settled in the year 1828. There he lived many years and died. His death occurred in 1869, when he was eighty-seven years of age. Sarah Boots Conner, the mother of the subject of this mention, was born in Chillicothe, Ohio, March 27, 1813. She died near Marion, Ind., March 20, 1890. She was a daughter of Martin Boots, a Pennsylvanian, of German parentage. Nelson Conner and Sarah Boots were the first white couple married in Grant county, Ind. Their marriage was solemnized April 15, 1831. They settled down in life in that county, where they ever afterward lived, till death called them away. He was a millwright by trade. To a great extent he followed his trade, but he always lived on a farm, and at the time of his death he was engaged in farming. In politics he was a staunch democrat. He and his devoted wife were members of the Methodist Episcopal church. They had seven children, of which six are now (1896) living. Of the seven children Isaiah is the second. In the main he was brought up on the farm. His early educational training was obtained in the "Quakers' school," an institution supported by subscription funds. After leaving this school, he took an academical course at Marion, Ind. Upon leaving the academy he began the study of law at Marion, and in 1867 was admitted to the bar in Grant county, Ind. Two years later he located in Rochester, where he soon gained a large clientage, and won an enviable reputation as a lawyer. In

November of 1884 he was elected judge of the circuit court, the judicial circuit being composed of the counties of Fulton and Marshall. He held the office one term, six years, and gained equally as excellent a reputation as a judge as he had gained as an advocate before the bar. Since retiring from the office he has continued an active practice of the law. He has always been a democrat in politics, and as a citizen he has always manifested a deep interest in public affairs, taking appropriate rank with the leaders in all movements intended for public benefit. On Jan. 26, 1862, Mr. Conner wedded Miss Talitha Line, a most estimable lady, who shared with him his joys and sorrows for a period of thirty-three years, and then answered the summons of death on July 18, 1895.

E. B. COOK, general merchant at Grass Creek, was born in Marion, Grant county, Ind., March 21, 1851; and is a son of George Robert Cook, who was born in Virginia, of Scotch ancestry. George Robert Cook was married to Susan Speelman, in Wabash county, this state, in which county his and her parents were early settlers. She was born in Virginia, and bore her husband two children, namely, the subject of this sketch and George R. The children were left orphans very early in life, and the subject of this biography was reared by a maternal uncle, Jacob Speelman, a farmer of Grant county. He was given a common school education, and at the age of sixteen went west and spent four years in Wyoming as a "cow-boy." After returning to Indiana Mr. Cook accepted employment in Miami county, Ind., and there met and married (1873) Miss Isabelle Prior, daughter of John Prior, Esq. For ten years after his marriage Mr. Cook was employed by a lumber company of Logansport and resided in that city. In April, 1887, he located at Grass Creek, where he opened the first store of that place, which has since become a nice little village. Since the above date Mr. Cook has conducted a general store, with an increasing business, and in connection with this he has been also engaged in the lumber and cold storage business. He was postmaster for the village for the first six years after locating at the place and for sometime he has held the position of station agent for the Vandalia line at this point. Mr. Cook began life under adverse circumstances, being very poor, but by means of enterprise and industry he has succeeded in becoming a prosperous and representative business man. He is a representative and progressive citizen; a democrat in politics, and enjoys the confidence of a wide acquaintance. Mr. and Mrs. Cook have two children. Their elder, Myrtle M., is the wife of William N. Hendrickson, who is Mr. Cook's clerk. The younger child's name is George Robert.

G. W. COOK, of Fulton, is the leading and oldest merchant in that village. He is an active and representative republican and has filled most efficiently and acceptably the office of township trustee for two terms, being first elected in 1886 and re-elected in 1888.

His duties were such as are common to that office and were discharged zealously and in the public interest. Mr. Cook was born at Harrisburg, Pa., Nov. 10, 1850. His father, George Cook, left the keystone state when our subject was an infant and located in Circleville, Ohio. He soon moved to Columbus and in 1855 came to Indiana and settled in Fulton. G. W. Cook was schooled in the village of Fulton and finished his education with one term at Battle Ground college. Farming was his business till he was twenty-two, at which age he put his small capital into a stock of general merchandise and became a fixture as a Fulton merchant. He has continued a successful and prosperous man of business for twenty-four years. He carries a large stock, sufficient to satisfy the demands of the community. Mr. Cook was married in this township to Amanda L., daughter of Riley Martin, a Cass county farmer, now deceased. The children resulting from this union are: Flora, Bertha, Henry, Rosa, Elmer, Ray, Lee and Lalah. Our subject's father was born near Harrisburg, Pa. He died in Fulton about 1881, aged seventy-three. He married a Miss Albright, who is a resident of this county and is seventy-eight year old. Her children are: Catherine, wife of William Martin, of Fulton; Elizabeth, deceased, wife of Boyd Buchanan; Mary E., deceased; Hiram, deceased; Jesse, Emma, wife of Alex Hoover, near Macy, and G. W. The Cooks are Pennsylvania Germans, and settled in the keystone state very early in our history. They were thorough going and their histories would be only those of thrifty and successful toilers for bread.

ISAAC H. COOK, one of the representative citizens of Aubbeenaubee township, was born in Crawford county, Ohio, Jan. 25, 1854. His parents were John and Rachel (Neff) Cook. His father was a native of Pennsylvania, born in 1826. He was twice married. He first married Rachel Neff, who bore him the following children and then passed away in death: David W., Mary, Sarah, George F., Emanuel, John, Isaac H., Maggie and Susan. When the subject of this sketch was a small boy he lost his mother in death. Subsequently his father married Sarah Neff, a sister of Rachel Neff. Unto this marriage one child was born, viz., Catherine L. Soon after John Cook's first marriage he moved to Crawford county, Ohio. He was an honest, toiling and respected farmer, and lived to a respectful old age, dying Feb. 10, 1895. His son, Isaac H., was reared on the farm, and was taught the lessons of industry and perseverance. He remained under the parental roof till twenty-four years of age, and then married Laura N. A. Myers, whose parents were Samuel and Elizabeth Myers. The marriage occurred in Ohio and later he came to Indiana and settled on his present homestead in Aubbeenaubee township, where he has since grown prosperous as a farmer and gained rank among the leading citizens. He is a defined democrat, in politics, never sway-

ing from the principles of the party. His wife, who is a most estimable lady, is a member of the Lutheran church, but Mr. Cook is a member of the M. E. church.

OLIVER E. COOK was born in Union township, Fulton county, on Feb. 2, 1850. He is a son of William and Electa (Richardson) Cook. William Cook was born Feb. 15, 1815, in the city of Bristol, England. He immigrated to the United States when sixteen years of age, and located in Muskingum county, Ohio, where he was engaged at the painter's trade, until failing health caused him to abandon that pursuit. He was left an orphan at a tender age, and his early years were passed under the guardianship of those who were utter strangers to him, and had not the interest of kinsmen in his welfare. Owing to this fact he grew up without educational advantages, and until after his marriage he was unable to write his name. But he possessed a mind naturally bright, and this, aided by the knowledge acquired from books in after years, qualified him to engage intelligently in the duties of an active life. Having abandoned the trade of painting, he engaged in agricultural pursuits, at which he continued until the close of his life. On Nov. 7, 1884, he was united in marriage with Miss Electa Richardson, in Marion county, Ohio, returning at once to his farm in Muskingum county, where he resided with his wife until 1849. In that year they came to Indiana and took up their abode among the pioneers of Fulton county. Mr. Cook purchased 160 acres of unimproved land in Union township, and erected upon it a log cabin, in which his family had their home until the present residence succeeded it. He devoted himself manfully to his work until his farm was cleared, and in the years that followed he amassed, by honest and industrious toil, a comfortable fortune, giving to each of his children \$550 as they reached maturity. He was quiet and unobtrusive in his manners, and honorable and upright in all his dealings. He was respected and esteemed wherever he was known, and was recognized as one of the best citizens of the community in which he lived. He died on April 10, 1876, mourned by a large circle of friends and a loving family. His wife, who still survives, was born Aug. 14, 1823, in Muskingum county, Ohio, and is the daughter of Manning and Lucinda Richardson. At the age of four years she accompanied her parents to Marion county, Ohio, where she resided until her marriage with Mr. Cook. She is an estimable lady, and has been a devoted wife and mother, rearing a family whose members are all recognized among the best citizens of the community. She has survived the hardships of pioneer life, and lives to enjoy the era of prosperity that has followed them, while she holds a warm place in the hearts of all who know her. Her family consists of five sons and one daughter—Jehiel A., Oliver E., Emma F., Francis M., William H. The subject of this sketch began life for himself at the age of twenty-one years. After spending a brief period in Illinois, where he learned

photography, Mr. Cook returned to Fulton county, and since then has been actively and successfully engaged in farming and stock raising. Nov. 2, 1876, he married Margaret J., a daughter of Thomas and Agnes Wilson, father and mother of James H. Wilson, elsewhere mentioned in this work. Unto Mr. and Mrs. Cook the following children have been born: Charles F., Hugh W., Nettie, Elmer, Mabel Agnes and Cecil Earl. Mr. and Mrs. Cook are active members of the Methodist church, to which they have given material support.

M. V. COPLEN, farmer and miller of Bloomingsburg, belongs to that class of representative American citizens who promote the public welfare while advancing individual prosperity. He was born in Coshocton county, Ohio, a son of James Coplen, who was born in the same state and was a blacksmith and farmer. He died in June, 1893, in his ninetieth year. The mother bore the maiden name of Betsy Horton, and by marriage had eleven children, of whom the following survive: Ceramus, a farmer of Nebraska; M. V.; Gilbert, who served his native county as recorder, and is now in Nebraska, and Orange, who is still living in Coshocton county. Mr. Coplen of this review became familiar with all the labors that fall to the lot of the agriculturist in his childhood days, and began farming for himself on rented land in Coshocton county. After a year he came to Fulton county, Ind., locating four miles southeast of his present home. In connection with farming he also operated a saw mill. About a quarter of a century ago he removed to a farm west of the river, where he has since maintained his residence. He to-day owns three hundred and seventy acres of rich and arable land, which is yielding him a good return for the labor bestowed upon it. In 1893 he purchased a grist mill in Bloomingsburg, which he has since profitably operated in connection with his other business, and his well directed efforts and untiring labors have brought to him a handsome competence. In January, 1860, Mr. Coplen was married to Sarah Severns, daughter of William Severns, by whom he has two children—Wilson, who married Ellen Burkett; and Elmer, who married Frances Rodabaugh. Both reside in Fulton county. The parents are members of the Christian church, and are most highly esteemed people. Mr. Coplen is one of the staunch adherents of democracy, is recognized as a leader of his party in the township, and by his fellow-citizens was elected to the office of county commissioner, where he discharged his duties in a most prompt and capable manner.

JAMES COSTELLO, a farmer and ex-soldier, was born in Hamilton, Butler county, Ohio, Nov. 20, 1844. His father, Patrick Costello, was born in county Leitrim, Ireland, March 26, 1807, and died in Fulton county March 23, 1863. Patrick Costello came to America when about eighteen years of age. He first lived in Cleveland, and later was employed in a packing house at Cincinnati.

Becoming a railroad and pike road contractor, he grew prosperous, but reverses came upon him, and in 1853 he came to Fulton county and located in Wayne township, where he farmed until his death. At Hamilton, Ohio, Patrick Costello married Ann Guckien, who was also born in county Leitrim, Ireland, May 2, 1809. She died in this county April 16, 1891. She bore her husband the following children: Ann, James, George, Thomas, deceased; Charles, Mary, John W. and Catherine. The parents were members of the Roman Catholic church. James Costello, whose name heads this mention, was reared on the farm, and farming has been his life pursuit. Oct. 3, 1861, he enlisted in company C, Sixteenth United States infantry. He participated in the battles of Shiloh and Stone river, and was then transferred to Company F of the same regiment. This company became a part of company C on account of being broken up in battle. Mr. Costello was in action at Hoover's Gap, then Chickamauga, Mission Ridge, advance on Atlanta and his last engagement was at Jonesborough. Nov. 3, 1864, he was discharged by reason of the expiration of his term of enlistment. His captain, Robert P. Barry, in the discharge, bore testimony to his services, saying that his character was good and that he acted as teamster for the greater part of his enlistment. In 1866 Mr. Costello married Anastasia Hoynes, born in Kilkenny county, Ireland. She bore him the following children: Annie, music teacher; Patrick, farmer and resident of Union township; George, teacher, graduated at Indiana State Normal; Mary, teacher; Martha, teacher; Paul, farmer and Charles. Mrs. Costello died July 1, 1881. The family belongs to the Roman Catholic church, and in politics Mr. Costello has voted with the democratic party. He owns a very fine farm of 220 acres, which he has greatly improved.

JOHN W. COSTELLO, a young and thrifty farmer and stock raiser and dealer, of Wayne township, was born in Butler county, Ohio, June 6, 1852. He is a son of Patrick Costello and a brother of James Costello, who is mentioned elsewhere in this volume. The subject of this sketch was brought up on the farm and given a common school education. At the age of seventeen years he began the battle of life for himself. He began farming on very limited means, but nevertheless he has grown prosperous, and now owns a fine farm of 400 acres. He has dealt in stock to a considerable extent, and in business adventures he has been very successful. He was married to Margaret Maroney Jan. 23, 1883. The marriage has been blessed by the birth of six children, as follows: Mary Ann, born Feb. 26, 1884; Catherin Ellen, born Aug. 4, 1885; George Martin, born April 13, 1887, and died Nov. 9, 1887; Walter Edward, born Oct. 31, 1888; John William, born Oct. 28, 1890; Patrick Joseph, born March 12, 1893; and Clara Margarette, born Sept. 28, 1895. Mrs. Costello was born April 14, 1859. Mr. and Mrs. Costello and their children are members of the Roman Catholic church



HON. WM. H. DAVIDSON.

and are among the leading families of the community in which they live. Mr. Costello is democratic and is a member of the order of the Knights of the Maccabees.

HON. WILLIAM H. DAVIDSON—This pioneer and honorable citizen of Fulton county, was born in Adams county, Ohio, July 13, 1815, and came to this county in June, 1836. A short time thereafter he began clearing a farm in the northern part of Rochester township. The fall and winter seasons of 1836-37 and 1837-38 he attended a school in Tippecanoe county and in the spring of 1838 he taught school in Fulton county. In 1852 Mr. Davidson went to California, where he spent a few years and then returned to Fulton county. The life of Mr. Davidson has been distinctively that of a farmer and for many years he was one of the most extensive farmers of this part of Indiana and, at one time, owned more than 1,000 acres of land in Fulton county. In 1878 he built in Rochester the Academy of Music, which he still owns. In politics he has been a life-long democrat, and cast his first presidential vote for Martin Van Buren in 1836. In 1881 he was elected to the Indiana senate, from the district composed of the counties of Fulton and Marshall. He served his district faithfully through the two regular and one extra session of the legislature. He believes in an honest dollar, good everywhere, and a tariff for revenue only. He has been twice married; first in 1837, to Miss Elizabeth Robbins, and second in 1840 to Miss Nancy S. Chinn. To this latter union are these living children, viz.: Andrew J., Timander, Arizona, Franklin P., David T. and Robert L. Mr. Davidson has been a resident of this county for sixty years and is one of its most highly respected citizens.

WILLIAM HENRY DENISTON—Mr. Deniston is a native of Preble county, Ohio, born July 29, 1846. He is a son of Ethan A. and Mary Ann (Jerdon) Deniston. The former was born in Preble county, Ohio, in October, 1821, and now resides in Miami county, Ind. By occupation he has been a miller and for many years operated a mill at Mexico, Miami county, Ind. The mother of Mr. Deniston was born in Pennsylvania in 1820, and died in Miami county, Ind., in 1869. The family came to Indiana in 1848 and settled in Miami county, where the subject of this review attended the public schools and later took a business course at Purdy's college at Lafayette, Ind. He grew up in the milling business in his father's mill and became a practical miller. In 1869 he came to Rochester and engaged in the grocery business, which he continued for about one year and then began the agricultural implement business, which he continued for some three years and then until 1890 he was engaged in the hardware business. In the year last named he was, by a majority of 203, elected to serve four years as auditor of Fulton county. His term of service began March 4, 1891, and continued until March 4, 1895. As a public official he gave the people entire satisfaction and left the office with the trust imposed

in him faithfully and courteously discharged. In the spring of 1895 he, as a member of the firm of Deniston & Caffyn, engaged in the grain business. In politics he is a democrat and has always supported the principles of that party. The marriage of Mr. Deniston took place in 1866 to Miss Maria Hoover, who was born in Cass county, Ind. Mrs. Deniston is a daughter of John and Rachel M. Hoover. The former was born in Ohio in 1808 and died in Cass county, Ind., in 1872, while the mother was born in Wayne county, Ind., in 1811, and died in Cass county, Ind., in 1894. To this union is one son, Arthur Leroy. He is a member of Rochester lodge, No. 47, I. O. O. F., and Fredonia lodge, No. 122, K. of P., and he and wife are members of the M. E. church.

ASA W. DEWEESE, who was born in Miami county, Ohio, in 1826, is descended from sturdy ancestry, from rock-ribbed Wales, the family being founded in Maryland. His grandfather, James Deweese, was born in Virginia, and emigrating to Pennsylvania, there married Elizabeth Whitlock. By trade he was a blacksmith. The father of our subject was born in Pennsylvania, in 1804, and, going down the Ohio river, settled in Fairfield county, that state. He married Amy Blue, daughter of Michael Blue, and she is now living in Peru, Ind., at the age of eighty-eight. Their children are: Asa W.; Lucinda, widow of H. Bryan; Isabel, widow of William Bryan; Nancy, widow of Oliver Longstreet; Michael, deceased; Elizabeth, wife of A. Marrs; James L., of Peru, Ind.; Louisa, wife of B. Burton; Diodema, wife of Daniel Gordon; Clarinda, wife of Mat Jones; and Susanna, wife of George Rouch. Asa W. Deweese was reared and educated in Shelby county, Ohio, and in 1854, with an ax and rifle upon his shoulder started for Fulton county, Ind. He secured a farm in the forest near the town of Fulton, where for two years he labored faithfully, preparing a home for his future bride. He was married May 29, 1856, to Emeline Russell whom he at once brought to the new farm, and who died two years later. Mr. Deweese was again married Jan. 1, 1863, his second union being with Mary A., daughter of Burriss H. Butler. Her father was born in Georgia, in 1806, was reared near Richmond, Ind., and came to Fulton county in 1841. Mr. and Mrs. Deweese have two children—Emily B., wife of Charles Martin, of Marion, Indiana; and Charles B., who is living at the old homestead owned by his father. This is one of the fine farms of the county, made so by the earnest labors of Asa W. Deweese, who is recognized as one of the most progressive and energetic agriculturists of Fulton county. In his political views he is a democrat, and has not failed to vote at a democratic primary or election for forty-three years. He has twice served as county commissioner, receiving a largely increased majority at his second election, which was a high testimonial of his faithful performance of duty during his first term. He retired from

office in 1895, as he had entered it, with the confidence and good will of all.

WILLIAM DOWNS, farmer and lumber manufacturer, is a native of Jennings county, Ind. He was born Oct. 26, 1838, and is a son of George and Ann (Black) Downs. The father was born in Ohio, and died in Fulton county, Ind., in 1892, at about eighty-six years of age. The mother was born in Pennsylvania and died in this county in 1886. The Downs family came to Indiana in 1838 and settled in Jennings county, and during the late war the parents of William Downs came to Fulton county. Mr. Downs grew up on the farm and received his schooling in the primitive schools of Jennings county. In 1861 he enlisted in Company B, Sixth Indiana volunteer infantry. He took part in the battles of Perryville, Salt Creek Knob, Atlanta, and many other less important engagements. Not until the surrender of Lee at Appomattox court house was Mr. Downs mustered out of service. The war over, he came to Fulton county and since that time has resided upon the Michigan road, about one mile south of the court house. He is one of the county's leading farmers and now owns 318 acres of well improved land, all located within three miles of Rochester. For some six months after coming to Fulton county he worked at the carpenter trade and then engaged in the saw-mill business. For thirty years he has been manufacturing lumber in this county. In 1896 he was appointed superintendent of the Michigan gravel road. He was united in marriage in 1866 to Miss Susan Brown, who was born in Jennings county, Ind., Sept. 24, 1843. Her parents were early settlers of Jennings county, Ind., and both died there about twelve years ago. To the marriage of Mr. and Mrs. Downs are these three sons and two daughters, viz.: John G., James, William K., Mande and Almeda. The republican party has always had the loyal support of Mr. Downs and he is a member of McClung post, No. 95, G. A. R., and of the order of I. O. O. F. Mrs. Downs is a member of the Baptist church. Mr. Downs is one of the progressive men of this county and the success he has attained has come through his own well directed efforts.

H. S. DRAKE, one of the defenders of our country and flag, was born in Steuben county, New York, in 1838; son of Leonard and Elizabeth (Cleveland) Drake, natives of Vermont. The father was born in 1804 and died in Michigan at nearly eighty-nine years of age, while the mother died in Erie county, Ohio, at seventy-two years of age. The Drake family settled in Erie county, Ohio, in 1843. Mr. Drake first attended the public schools and later spent some time at Oberlin college. He continued on the farm until Aug. 6, 1862, when he enlisted in Company G, One Hundred and First Ohio volunteers infantry for three years, or during the war. At the battle of Chickamauga, September, 1863, Mr. Drake was seriously wounded, having been shot through the left forearm. Other important battles

in which he participated may be mentioned: Kennesaw mountain, Mission Ridge and Lookout mountain. He was a true and brave soldier. The conflict over, he returned to Ohio, where he resided until 1873, when he came to Fulton county, Ind., and since then has been engaged in farming about two miles southeast of Rochester, where he now owns a well improved farm of 115 acres, besides which the family have some valuable property in the city of Rochester. The marriage of Mr. Drake occurred Dec. 25, 1866, to Miss Norris, a native of county Tipperary, Ireland, born in 1841. In 1846, in the company of her father, Patrick Norris, she came to the United States and settled in Erie county, Ohio. Her father died at Toledo, Ohio, at about sixty-five years of age. To the marriage of Mr. and Mrs. Drake are these three living children, viz.: Benjamin, who spent two years at the university of Michigan, and is now living at Hammond, Ind.; Charles, an 1893 graduate of the university of Michigan and now a teacher of science in the high school at Alpena, Mich., and Fred, who is also a graduate of this noted western university, in the school of pharmacy department and is now engaged in the practice of his profession. Mrs. Drake was educated at Oberlin college, and for some time was engaged in teaching. She is a woman of strong force of character and believes in a continuous, progressive education. She is a member of the M. E. church. In politics Mr. Drake is an uncompromising republican, a member of McClung post, No. 95, G. A. R., and a member of the Masonic fraternity. He is a man of a pleasing personality and public spirit.

NATHANIEL DUDGEON, present chairman of the board of commissioners for Fulton county, a native of Washington county, Pa., was born Sept. 22, 1831, and is a son of William and Mary Ann (Jones) Dudgeon. The father was born in Maryland in 1803 and died in Holmes county, Ohio, in 1872. The mother was born in Washington county, Pa., in 1811, and died in Holmes county, Ohio, in 1873. In 1832 the family settled in Ohio, having removed from Pennsylvania. The early boyhood of Nathaniel Dudgeon was spent upon his father's farm. He obtained a common school education at the Ohio public schools. At sixteen years of age he began learning the carpenter trade, at which he continued in Ohio until 1852, when he came to Fulton county. Here he remained one year and then removed to Cass county, where he lived until 1857, when he came again to this county and settled on his present farm, five miles north of Rochester. He continued the carpenter business until 1857, since which time he has been engaged in farming. He now owns 371 acres of highly cultivated land and is considered one of the best and most successful farmers in Fulton county. Politically Mr. Dudgeon has been a life-long democrat, and for many years he has taken an active part in the affairs of that party. In 1890 he was elected to the office of commissioner from the third district. This position he has ably filled for more than five years.



NATHANIEL DUDGEON.



MRS. NATHANIEL DUDGEON.

During his second term the magnificent new court house of Fulton county has been erected, and during his term of almost six years many substantial improvements have been made in the county. In 1856 he was united in marriage to Miss Harriet E. March, a native of Berks county, Pa., born Feb. 12, 1831. Mrs. Dudgeon is a daughter of Jacob and Rachel March, natives of Pennsylvania. Her father was born in 1803 and died in Fulton county, Ind., in 1879, and her mother was born in 1803 and died in this county in 1874. To Mr. and Mrs. Dudgeon were born these children, viz.: Orton W. and Alburtus H. Orton W. was born in Fulton county in 1857 and died in this county in 1893. In 1883 he was united in marriage to Miss Carrie E. Miner. To this union are these children, viz.: Fred Ort, Nina Odessa, Georgia, Ethel and Nathaniel. Mr. and Mrs. Dudgeon are among the leading and most highly respected citizens of Fulton county.

LEWIS ELY, proprietor of the lumber mill at Bloomingsburg, is one of the best known citizens of New Castle township. In his business career he has met with many difficulties, but his industry and energy triumphed over these. He was born in Knox county, Ohio, Dec. 17, 1837, a son of Benjamin Ely, who was born in Washington county, Pa., Dec. 15, 1810. His mother was Maria daughter of Joseph and Katherine (Hull) Staats, the former born in Virginia, in 1790, of German parentage, while the latter was born of Irish parentage in 1795. Throughout his life Benjamin Ely followed farming, and died Nov. 11, 1882, leaving the following children: Lewis, Homer, George W., Joseph S., Katherine, Maria, Rebecca J., Benjamin B., Sarah O. and Zipporah. The grandfather of our subject, Peter Ely, was born in Pennsylvania, April 22, 1785, and was married Nov. 9, 1809, to Mary Horn. In 1813 he removed to Knox county, Ohio, where he died, leaving eight children, Benjamin being the eldest. Our subject received but meagre educational discipline, but was reared to habits of industry. He was married Sept. 30, 1860, to Susan A. Bell, and the following year, accompanied by his brother Homer, came to Fulton county, where, in connection with S. Ely, he engaged in the manufacture of lumber. In 1863 he bought out his partner, but soon after sold the entire plant, and in company with Israel Stuckey contracted for a new mill from the factory. This was located a mile and a half from Bourbon, Marshall county, and was to be put on trial for thirty days. Just before the expiration of the month the boiler exploded, killing one man and seriously injuring Mr. Stuckey, who at once retired from the business. The accident lost Mr. Ely \$1,000, but within thirty days a new boiler had been put in and work was resumed. The succeeding fall he was drafted for service in the army, but sent a substitute and continued the business, being joined by French Fisher, who invested \$1,200 and became a partner in the enterprise. In January, 1865, the mill was moved four miles west of Plymouth, and

by fall Mr. Ely had paid off all indebtedness with the exception of \$200. The mill was then moved north of Plymouth and he purchased his partner's interest, and soon accumulated a surplus of \$1,000. He sawed logs for his late partner, but the money was not forthcoming, and he soon found he was a creditor to the amount of \$1,700. In 1868 he removed the mill to an eighty-acre tract of timber near Bloomingsburg, owned by Mr. Ely and Mr. Fisher, and as the lumber was manufactured it was stored in a yard. In 1869 Mr. Ely lost his home and its contents by fire. In 1871 the firm bought forty acres of timber which they manufactured into lumber. The same year they made an agreement to remove their mill to Roann, and when this was partially accomplished word was received that the material still on the old site was all destroyed by fire. About the same time Mr. Ely's partner died, adding greater indebtedness to him. He continued his work in Roann, by forming a partnership with M. W. Downey and J. V. Bailey, manufacturing barrel staves at Walnut station. After six months he bought out his partners and removing his mill from Roann, located both plants three miles northwest of Bloomingsburg, where he contracted to cut 300 acres of timber for Mr. Downey, remaining there four years. Within that time Mr. Downey died and Mr. Ely thereby suffered a loss of \$6,000. In 1876 he located in Bloomingsburg, and soon built up an extensive and profitable business in the manufacture of lumber, shingles and firkin staves. On Dec. 31, 1880, his mill was destroyed by fire, but soon rebuilt and by December, 1882, had paid off every dollar of indebtedness. He is still successfully engaged in the lumber trade, and in addition he owns considerable valuable farming and other property. Eight years ago he successfully anchored a suspension foot bridge over the Tippecanoe river, with a span of 265 feet between piers, after the task had been pronounced impossible. Mrs. Ely is the daughter of Rev. Benjamin and Mary Bell. The former was born in Green county, Pa., in 1812, and died in Licking county, Ohio, in 1884. The mother of Mrs. Ely was Mary Moore, born in Ohio about 1813, and died in Knox county, Ohio, in 1859. The maternal grandfather of Mrs. Ely was William Moore, a soldier in the war of 1812, who died in Iowa in 1881, aged 101 years. To Mr. and Mrs. Ely have been born the following children: Mary M., who became the wife of Reuben Kesler, Oct. 4, 1879, and died July 26, 1887, leaving two children—Linnie D. and Earl; Flora D., who became the wife of Levi Bybee, March 6, 1884, and has two children—Noma D. and Devane L.; Elmer E., who married Allie Miller, July 15, 1886, and has five children—Cleo, Millie D., Claude, Dean E. and Merl; George E., who was born Nov. 10, 1867, married Providence Brown, and has two sons, Russell E. and Byron E.; Lewis O., who was married March 15, 1890, to Irene Barrett; and Charles Morgan, who was born April 29, 1885. Mr. Ely is a prominent Odd

Fellow in politics is a democrat, and has served his township as justice of the peace.

JOHN H. ELLIS, the son of John and Letitia (King), was born in Pickaway county, Ohio, Oct. 20, 1851. The father, John Ellis, was the son of Robert and Nancy Ellis, and was born in the above named county Sept. 18, 1819. His father, Robert, was born and married in Wales, then migrated to America and settled in Ohio. Robert died when John was but four years of age. John Ellis went to live with one Jonathan Renick, and resided with this gentleman until he was twenty-eight years of age. In the meantime he had hired to various persons by the month driving cattle over the mountains to New York and Buffalo markets. He followed this until his marriage, which occurred in 1847. He had saved enough money in the meantime to buy 160 acres of land. He lived on this farm some six years and then sold it and came to Indiana and purchased 330 acres in Aubbeenaubee township, Fulton county, where he remained until his death. This land is still owned by his heirs. He died March 18, 1875. He was the father of the following children: Martha, John H., Nancy, deceased; Margaret, Bessie, Robert, James, deceased; Andrew, deceased; Emmet, deceased, and Clara L. The father was a very ambitious and hard-working man, and his death came earlier than it would have had he not labored so hard in his time. He was a soldier in the Mexican war. John H. remained with his parents until he was thirty years of age, at which age he was married to Elva Swihart, June 5, 1883. To this marriage have been born two children, an infant and Ray, both deceased. John H. was heir to thirty-one and one-half acres and he bought the respective shares of two sisters, and now owns 103 acres. He and his wife are members of the M. E. church. He has always been a staunch democrat in politics.

F. M. ERNSPERGER—The gentleman whose name introduces this biography was born in Sandusky county, Ohio, Dec. 6, 1836. His father, Christopher Ernsperger, was born in Maryland Dec. 12, 1812, and died in Rochester, Ind., in 1877. By occupation he was a farmer. The mother of F. M. Ernsperger is Julia Ann (Ensminger) Ernsperger, who was born in Pennsylvania, and now (1896), at eighty-six years of age, resides in Rochester. The Ernsperger family came to Fulton county in 1858. Mr. Ernsperger is the third eldest in a family of ten children, of whom nine are living. He obtained a good common school education and at twenty-one years of age began teaching school in his native Ohio county, and upon coming to Fulton county, he continued teaching during the winter season until he had closed his thirteenth school term, counting the time taught in Ohio. In 1864 he enlisted in Company G, One Hundred and Fifty-fifth Indiana volunteer infantry, and served until the close of the war. He was mustered out of the service at Camden, Del., and is now a member of McClung post, No. 95, of Rochester.

Since the war he has been engaged in farming and now owns a fine farm of 120 acres two miles northwest of Rochester. Politically Mr. Ernsperger has always supported the policy and principles of the democratic party. His views upon finance are for bimetallism, and upon the tariff he believes in a revenue sufficient to meet the present and increasing legitimate expenses of the government. Mr. Ernsperger served five years as assessor of Rochester township, and in 1891 was elected trustee of this township and served for five years. Although the township is about one hundred republican, he was elected by a majority of twelve, thus attesting his popularity. In 1859 he was united in marriage to Miss Ida A. Wiley, a native of Fulton county. To this union are the following living children: Della, Bell and Fred. Mr. Ernsperger is a successful farmer and man of affairs.

HON. MICHAEL L. ESSICK, a lawyer and citizen of excellent reputation, was born in Ohio, Feb. 20, 1834. His parents were Samuel and Grizella (Todd) Essick. They were natives of Pennsylvania. He was of German and Scotch descent; while she was of Scotch and Irish lineage. The name Essick is of German origin. Mr. Essick's parents were married in their native state about the year 1830. Immediately after their marriage they moved into Ohio, where they lived until 1839, in which year they moved into Indiana, and settled in Miami county, where they continued to reside till death ended their long and useful careers. The father died in the year 1878, and thirteen years later the mother's death occurred. They had eight children, of which only three are now (1896) living. The father was a tanner by trade. Beside following his trade he was also a farmer and merchant. He was of strong force of character, a man of strong brain power, and was universally respected. Such distinguished men as Colfax, Fitch, Jernegan and others were his friends and admirers, and they were frequently his guests. He was the first abolitionist in Miami county, and his house was a station for the historic "underground railway" system, and conveyed many fugitive slaves on horseback. Many were the nights that the subject of this sketch, though then a small boy, led the fugitives on the path that conducted the slave further in his flight for freedom. Samuel Essick and his good wife are still remembered in Miami county, where they were hardy pioneers, leading most exemplary lives. They were members of the Lutheran church for many years and contributed much to the upbuilding of the church of their choice. Their son, whose name introduces this review, was brought up on the farm. The labors of his youth consisted in farm work and assisting his father in his tannery. After attending the country schools, he spent four years in Wabash college at Crawfordsville. He then studied law. In the year 1857 he went west, and on March 4 of that year landed at Manhattan, Kan. There he purchased a yoke of oxen and began hauling rock for the building of a school

house. Later he was engaged in surveying. Then he opened a law office in Manhattan, and soon afterward was elected state senator. He was a member of the senate of the session of 1861-62, and gained an enviable reputation as a legislator. He was the prime mover of the legislation that located the present state industrial school at Manhattan. In August 1862, Mr. Essick enlisted as a private in Company G of the Eleventh Kansas volunteers. In 1863 he was discharged for promotion. He was made first lieutenant in the Sixth Kansas cavalry, and later was commissioned to raise the "Leavenworth Post battery," of which he was commissioned first lieutenant. He refused the commission, and with this act his war record ended. While in the service he participated in the following engagements among others: Battles of Prairie Grove, Cave Hill, Maysville and Van Buren. At the close of the civil war Mr. Essick found himself a poor man and the prospects for money making in Kansas were not encouraging, consequently he determined to return to Indiana. In 1865 he located in Rochester, and became the owner and editor of the *Chronicle*, remaining as such for about three years. In 1867 he became circuit prosecutor for a judicial circuit then consisting of eight counties. He held this position for two years, performing the duties of the office with fitting ability. Since then he has been actively engaged in practice of law at Rochester. While living at Manhattan, Kan., he married (Oct. 31, 1858) Miss Ellen L. Rowley (a lineal descendant of Hannah Dusten), then teaching school near Manhattan. She was born in Ohio, but losing her parents when she was a small girl, she was brought up by a brother at Angola, Ind. She had poor educational advantages, but her love of books was strong and she educated herself by close application to her books, and became a teacher early in life. She has always been a student, and to-day she is well educated. She is of literary tastes, and has the reputation of being a good writer, though she has never made special literary efforts. She is a zealous member of the Presbyterian church, and a leader in social circles. To the union of Mr. and Mrs. Essick there are two living children. The elder, Vivian, is married and is farming in Fulton county. The younger, Samuel, is a young man of good education, and a successful career is anticipated for him by his friends. In April, 1896, Mr. Essick was nominated by the republicans for judge of the Forty-first judicial district, which is composed of the counties of Marshall and Fulton. Mr. Essick's career has been a varied experience, embracing almost every phase of man, and yet, one of extended research and thirst for knowledge.

GEORGE RINALDO FISH, the present superintendent of schools of Fulton county, was born in Marshall county, Ind., Sept. 20, 1866. He is a son of Dr. Samuel R. and Susanna (Meyers) Fish. The subject of this review first attended the common schools and later was a student at the Northern Indiana Normal school at Val-

paraiso, where, in 1891, he graduated from the classic and scientific departments. Mr. Fish began teaching in this county in 1885, and since that time he has been interested in school work. In June, 1895, he was elected county superintendent of schools for this county. The cause of education has always found in him an earnest and pronounced advocate and worker. On June 9, 1895, he was united in marriage to Miss Emily M. Treadwell, of Ann Arbor, Mich. Mrs. Fish is a graduate of the Ann Arbor high school and, before coming to Rochester, taught school one year at Milan, Mich., and upon coming here taught for one year in the Rochester schools. Mr. Fish is a Mason, member of Bloomingsburg lodge, No. 482, and a member of Fredonia lodge, No. 122, K. of P. As an educator and practical man of school affairs, it is safe to say that Mr. Fish has no superior in Fulton county.

JOHN C. FRY, of Liberty township, was born in Paulding county, Ohio, Jan. 24, 1848. He is descended from the Frys of Pennsylvania, his father, S. C. Fry, being born in the old quaker state about 1813. He emigrated to Ohio after his marriage and followed farming, his life-time vocation, till about 1859, when he came to Indiana and settled for a time near Wabash. In 1863 he came to Fulton county and lived about the town of Fulton till 1892, when he died. He was twice married. His children are: Catherine, widow of August Diehl; Josiah Fry, a merchant in Cincinnati, Ohio, and John C. Fry, all by his first wife. John C. Fry got but little schooling. His father was not full-handed enough to help his children to begin life as independents. So our subject was driven to the necessity of earning his start by working for wages. When he had saved \$600 he paid it out on the contract for eighty acres of his present farm, going \$1,400 in debt. All the years since he has given to clearing and general improvement of his premises. He owns now 110 acres and is one of the substantial and reliable men of his community. Mr. Fry was married Jan. 11, 1875 to Mary Jane Van Blarigen, who died in 1888, leaving six children—Alvin W., Arthur J., Marietta and Sarahnetta, twins; Cloe C. and Dora A. S. C. Fry's children by his second marriage are: Mary, wife of Charles Shrader, of Logansport; Sarah, married to Joe House, of Fulton county; Lillie, wife of John White, of Liberty township; Hattie, wife of Adam Britherner, of Denver, Ind., and Samuel L. Fry, in Arkansas.

JUDSON M. FULLER, a prominent farmer and resident of Union township, was born in Lucerne county, Pa., June 14, 1836. His parents were Minor and Mary (Majors) Fuller. The father was born in Lucerne county, Pa., Aug. 25, 1808. He died in Kosciusko county, Ind., Aug. 22, 1862. He was a son of William Fuller, also a native of Pennsylvania, whose father in turn was of English origin and a soldier in the revolution. Mary Majors was born in England, Feb. 1, 1807, and her death occurred in Kosciusko county, Ind.,

Sept. 21, 1857. She was a daughter of Thomas Majors, a native of England. Minor and Mary Fuller were married in Pennsylvania Aug. 23, 1832. They had the following children: Rebecca Ann, Judson M., Joseph, deceased; Ellen, deceased; Major, Mary, deceased; and Margaret, deceased. The parents settled in Kosciusko county in 1853. The father was a farmer and miller by occupation. The subject of this mention was reared on the farm, and the labors of his youth were divided between working on the farm and in the saw and grist-mill of his father. He began the battle of life for himself at the age of twenty-six years. He has always followed farming and has been very successful. He has resided in Fulton county since 1866. He owns a splendid farm of 140 acres and has added to it many improvements. He has always been a staunch republican in politics. Both he and his wife are members of the Baptist church. Their family consists of six children, viz.: Charles, Mary, Ella, Norma, Malissa and Leonard. Their first born, Wilbur by name, is deceased. Mr. and Mrs. Fuller were married Sept. 21, 1862. Mrs. Fuller is a daughter of Richard and Ruth Herd, both of whom were born in England. Mrs. Fuller was born Aug. 26, 1837.

MAJOR FULLER, a farmer of Union township, was born in Lucerne county, Pa., Dec. 3, 1843. His parents were Minor and Mary (Majors) Fuller. His father was also a native of Lucerne county, Pa. He died in Kosciusko county, Ind., in the year 1862, at the age of fifty-one years. Our subject's mother was born in England, and when young came to this country with her parents. The paternal grandmother of Mr. Fuller was a sister of Col. Ethan Allen, of revolutionary fame. Mr. Fuller's parents settled in Kosciusko county in 1853, and four years later his mother passed away in death, at the age of fifty years. She bore her husband the following children: Rebecca, Judson M., Joseph, deceased; Major; Ellen, deceased; Mary, deceased, and Margaret, deceased. The parents were members of the Baptist church and were highly respected. Major Fuller was reared on the farm and to the independent pursuit of farming his entire life has been devoted. He has been very successful, achieving success by means of industry, perseverance and frugality. Mr. Fuller has resided in Fulton county since 1866. He owns a fine farm of 243 acres and raises considerable stock. He has given to public enterprise very material aid and to education and church he has always given his full share of support. He and his wife are members of the Christian church; and in politics he is a supporter of the principles of the republican party. Mr. Fuller has been twice married. He wedded Caroline Kersey in 1872. She was a native of Fairfield county, Ohio. In 1882, she died at the age of nearly twenty-nine years, leaving him the following children: Wilbirt A., Arthur C. and Franklin M., deceased. In 1887 Mr. Fuller married Elsie V. Rounds, a native of New York state.

GEORGE E. GEJER, ex-trustee of Wayne township, was born

at Logansport, Ind., March 4, 1849. He is a son of George and Mary (Rouff) Geier. The father was born in Wickersham, Alsace, Germany, July 26, 1815, and died in Fulton county Nov. 27, 1892. He was a son of Andrew Geier, who lived and died in Germany. George Geier came to America in 1839. He married in 1848, in New York state, and in the same year settled at Logansport, Ind. His wife is Mary Rouff, who was born in Germany July 5, 1822. The subject of this biographical sketch was reared to farming. He left the parental home at the age of eighteen years. For four years he followed teaming in Logansport. Dec. 28, 1871, he married and settled down in life in Carroll county, where he farmed for three years. He then moved to Wayne township, Fulton county, where he has since resided. Mr. Geier wedded Rebecca J., a daughter of John and Mary J. (Halstead) Hendrickson. Her father was a son of Jacob Hendrickson, whose personal sketch appears elsewhere in this volume. Mrs. Geier was born in Wayne township Dec. 24, 1855. The home of Mr. and Mrs. Geier has been blessed by the birth of ten children. In politics Mr. Geier has always been a staunch democrat. In 1890 he was elected trustee for Wayne township and for five years thereafter he held the office.

J. E. GIBSON & CO., Logansport, Ind.—The members of this firm are J. E. Redmond and J. E. Gibson, leading contractors of the west, who are now, March, 1896, finishing their contract upon the new court house for Fulton county. Mr. Redmond was born in the city of Baltimore, Md., Dec. 28, 1840, and came to Indiana in 1853. With but a brief intermission he has been in the building business since 1868. Mr. Redmond is one of the prominent Masons of Indiana. In Thomas H. Lynch commandery, No. 14, at Columbus, he was, in 1871, created a Knight Templar and is now a member of St. John commandery, No. 24, at Logansport. Mr. Gibson is native of Frankfort, Ky., born April 8, 1859, and has been in the contracting business since 1880. He removed to Logansport in 1884. He was made a Knight Templar in Anderson commandery, No. 32, and is now a member of St. John commandery, No. 24, at Logansport.

Among the many buildings erected by these gentlemen, either jointly or individually, may be mentioned the following: The school house and jail at Franklin, Ind., the court house at Columbus, the court house at Nashville, the court house at Crawfordsville, the court house at Washington, the court house at Clarksville, Tenn.; the addition to the Southern Indiana prison at Jeffersonville; the jail at Kokomo; the bridge over White river at Anderson; the Northern hospital for the insane at Logansport; the library building for the State university at Bloomington; the Southern hospital for the insane at Evansville; Senator Maxey's office building in Texas, and J. J. Dooley's Arcade building at Salt Lake City. Upon the completion of the Pulaski county court house, the following unsolicited letter was given this firm:

Winamac, Ind., Sept. 7, 1895.

To whom it may concern.

The new court house here was accepted and settled for by the commissioners to-day. Mr. Gibson, of the firm of J. E. Gibson & Co., has honestly and faithfully fulfilled the contract and the people here are more than pleased with the manner in which the work has been done and the building as completed. I can cheerfully and honestly recommend this firm as competent and honest contractors to persons or counties having work to be erected.

Respectfully,

GÉORGE BURSON,

Judge Forty-fourth Circuit.

These gentlemen are practical builders and experts in all of its branches and sanitary engineering and are successful managers of employees, a commendable characteristic being their sturdy opposition to insobriety upon the part of any man who works for them.

ISAAC GOOD.—Among the pioneers of Fulton county no man is better and more widely known than Isaac Good. He became a resident of the county very early in life. He was the war sheriff, and it was then he made the acquaintance of and won the friendship of the Fulton county pioneers. His official duties gave him practice as an auctioneer, and when he retired to private life his popularity as an auctioneer led him to engage in the business of such. He could sell more goods in a given time than any of his competitors and talk from day to day for a fortnight. He saw much of the rough and tumble in the 40's in "frontier Indiana," and in it all and through it all Isaac Good's chief aim was provide well for those depending upon him. In 1863 he bought a small tract of land near town, which was the nucleus of his present farm. He has it improved in keeping with those of the neighborhood where he lives, and is referred to as one of the substantial farmers about Rochester. Mr. Good was born in Fairfield county, Ohio, July 28, 1826. His father, Isaac Good, had died only six weeks before this event, leaving the widow with an older daughter. She struggled along and cared for her children till about 1833, when she married Peter Sanns, born in 1812 in Ohio, and died in this county, aged fifty-nine years. There were six daughters by this union, two of whom reside in Rochester; Mrs. Philip Jenkins and Mrs. D. S. Ross. Peter Sanns left the Buckeye state with his family and reached Lafayette in the fall of 1836. He wintered there and the spring following took up his abode in Fulton county. He located a pre-emption in New Castle township, being the first white settler on Wewissa reserve. A part of this homestead is in the name of A. H. D. Gray, who married Rebecca Sanns. Isaac Good's paternal grandfather, John Good, was born in Pennsylvania. He was one of the earliest settlers in Licking county, Ohio, and built the first grist-mill there. He removed to Fairfield county some years later and built two mills there. His

death occurred in that county about 1834, when he was nearing seventy years of age. Isaac Good got but a very meager education. His experience in business being the best training he ever had. He came to Rochester in 1844 and learned cabinet making with a Mr. Kitt, and it was about this time that the first school house was being erected and to plaster which Mr. Good carried the hod. He followed carpentering and cabinet work till 1860, when his name was mentioned for sheriff by the venerable Jesse Shields. Although he had never been in politics the wisdom of Mr. Shields' suggestion was so apparent to all that he was made the democratic candidate and was elected by the margin of two votes. He was re-elected for a second term by a majority of 215. He made the county a successful and efficient officer and retired from the office with the respect of all. Sept. 15, 1850, Mr. Good married Eliza J., a daughter of Allen Nixon, who came to this county from Canada about that date. Mrs. Good died leaving the following children: Catherine, at home; A. W., farmer in this county; Sarah A., died young; Alvin H., a farmer near Rochester; Nellie, married to Isaiah Hawley, of Rochester; Susan, wife of Edward Thompson, of Rochester, and Annie and an unnamed infant, both deceased. Mr. Good's second marriage occurred in 1876 to his first wife's sister, Sarah A., widow of David Sheets. She has two sons, John B. and Allen B. Sheets, both in this county. Mr. Good has been a member of the I. O. O. F. since 1849.

EMANUEL GOSS is one of the best known citizens of Liberty township and certainly no man can say aught derogatory to his character, for he has lived by honest toil from the day on which he cast his lot with this county to his retirement from the labors of the farm in September, 1895. Mr. Goss was born in Fairfield county, Ohio, Aug. 2, 1827. His father was a farmer in poor circumstances and could do nothing for his sons when they reached an age when they must support themselves. At eighteen young Emanuel was informed of this fact by his parent and told that he could have his time to use as his own. In the month of May, 1845, he joined a neighbor, who was coming west, and agreed to drive his cow for the privilege of being in the company of the family. This man was John Plank. They reached Rochester in June and young Goss engaged to work for his cousin, Sebastian Goss, at six dollars a month. He continued to do the work of a servant for five years, saving his wages, with which he bought land at \$1.25 per acre, the government price. He entered a tract in Liberty township and moved onto it about 1850. His work of clearing up was interrupted frequently by his having to do day labor to support himself and family while a crop was growing. He could turn his willing hand to anything, being frequently called on to cry sales, at which business he seemed peculiarly fitted. In a few years his fields were large enough to support the family, and Mr. Goss was enabled to devote all his days to the improvement of his home. His 177-acre farm

is in prime condition, good buildings, good fences, good orchard, and during his forty-five years occupancy of the farm there was no funeral from his household. He gave up the farm because the "old machine" was run down. Its day was done. No more could be expected of it. It had done enough. Mr. Goss' father, Henry Goss, was born in Switzerland. His father, also Henry Goss, settled in Fairfield county, Ohio, and died there in the town of Basil, which he laid out. Emanuel Goss' mother was Ulerich Wagoner's daughter Elizabeth. Her children are: Emanuel, Annie, wife of Aaron Rouch, of Liberty township; Jonas and Tobias, both in Rochester. Emanuel Goss married Margaret Reed in 1851. Her father, Richard Reed, came from Darke county, Ohio, to Fulton county. Mr. and Mrs. Goss' children are: J. B. and Isaiah, both in Washington state; Rosie, wife of John Hagan, of Rochester township; Elizabeth, now Mrs. Willis Carter; Lyman W. and Frank J., both in Liberty township. Mr. Goss moved to Rochester in September, 1895, and will remain a retired farmer until death shall remove him. He has been a United Brethren for nearly forty years.

WILLIAM GOSS, of Rochester, is one of the recognized enterprising young men of the county. His advantages for the best general mental equipment were not in keeping with the ambitions of the boy. There seemed greater need on his father's farm of boys of strong muscles than of well-stored brain. However, he picked up such of the rudiments of an education as have enabled him to become a successful competitor in the race of life. He made his full hand on the farm early after entering his teens, and before he was twenty was the main manager of the farm. On becoming of age he followed the plow and drove the reaper for a few years, both in Rochester and New Castle townships and gradually drifted into the business of buying, feeding and shipping stock; at one time handling the bulk of that product brought to this market. Although he has dropped out as a regular shipper he is still handling cattle and trading in stock generally and in real estate. He owns a farm in Liberty township and one in Rochester, aggregating 246 acres, and besides improved property in Rochester. For a few months he was a hardware merchant in Rochester in company with J. R. Barr. His political faith is democratic. Mr. Goss was born in this county May 23, 1860. He is a son of Sebastian Goss, a well known pioneer of this county, and a farmer of influence and means. The Gosses are of German extraction, and the pioneer ancestor of this family was Jacob Goss, who came from Europe and entered land in Fairfield county, Ohio, and laid out a town on it. He was a soldier in the war of 1812. Sebastian Goss is the youngest of seven children. His mother died in 1831, aged 33. In 1833 Jacob Goss came to Fulton county and entered 280 acres and died here in 1877. Sebastian Goss was born Aug. 29, 1825. He married Elizabeth Rouch, daughter of George and Mary Rouch, Sept. 23, 1847. William

Goss married, Sept. 9, 1882, Dora Pyle, whose father, James Pyle, was born in Virginia and was killed in this county by accident years ago. Mrs. Goss was born in 1861. Her children are: Caroline and Mabel.

VERNON GOULD, M. D., one of the oldest practitioners of medicine and most favorably known citizens of Fulton county, was born near Boston, Mass., Feb. 11, 1829. His parents were Jeremiah and Mary (Copen) Gould, both of whom were born in Sharon, about fifteen miles from Boston. Jeremiah Gould was a son of Nathaniel Gould, also a native of the Bay state. The Goulds were among the oldest of New England families, the first representatives of the family in America having come from Wales. In 1844, an early day in the history of the county, Dr. Gould's parents came direct from their native state, and settled in the northwestern part of Fulton county, where the father became a pioneer farmer of the county, and died about 1854; his wife having preceded him in death one year. These parents had six children, namely: Vernon, Robert, Marietta, Willard, Daniel S., and Emma. Vernon was about fifteen years of age when his parents came to Fulton county. He had gained a fair education in the schools of his native state, and on coming to this county, though but a youth, began teaching in the county schools, and also worked on the farm. He taught several years, and meanwhile studied medicine, and after practicing medicine for awhile in Marshall county, he entered Rush medical college, of Chicago, where he graduated in February, 1855. Then he located in Rochester, where he has since resided and continued the practice of his profession save for a period of time, during which he served in the war of the rebellion and as clerk of the county. In March, 1863, he became assistant surgeon in the Eighty-seventh Indiana infantry, and served as such until the close of the war. In the fall of 1865 he was elected clerk of the circuit court, which office he held for five years, and then resumed the practice of medicine, becoming one of the ablest in his profession in this section of the state. Dr. Gould has always been a student not only in medicine, but also other subjects, especially mineralogy, geology and chemistry, in which subjects he has gained breadth of learning. He has collected many fine specimens of minerals and other curios. In 1854 he married Almira O. Rannells, who remained his faithful companion some eighteen years, and then answered the summons of death in 1872. She bore him the following children: Francis, deceased; Dr. Charles E., now associated with his father in the practice of medicine; Hattie; Carrie E., deceased, and Lucius V., deceased. In 1876 the doctor married a second time, wedding Nancy M. Rannells, a cousin of his first wife. She died in 1882. In 1886 he united in marriage with Mrs. Margaret Cowgill, widow of the late E. E. Cowgill. In politics Dr. Gould has always been a staunch republican. He is also a prom-

inent member of the Grand Army of the Republic, McClung post, of Rochester.

GEORGE W. GREGSON, a resident of Rochester township since 1848, and a native of Morgan county, Ind., was born Feb. 8, 1836. He is a son of William and Mary (Myers) Gregson. The father was born in North Carolina in 1803 and the mother in Kentucky in 1805, and their deaths took place in Kansas, to which state they removed from Fulton county, Ind., in 1873, the father of Mr. Gregson dying in 1882 and his mother in 1890. George W. Gregson is the fifth in a family of eight children, of whom only three are living at this time. In the thirteenth year of his age he came to Fulton county and the first school he attended in the county was taught in a private house. Upon the coming of the Gregson family to Fulton county there was found one continuous forest and the settlement was made in the woods. In 1865 Mr. Gregson settled where he now lives, in the northeast corner of Rochester township. Here he has eighty acres of land and also owns forty acres in New Castle township in close proximity to the home farm. These 120 acres are well improved. The entire life of Mr. Gregson has been devoted to farming and he is considered a successful man in this line. In 1865 he was united in marriage to Miss Catherine E. Shaeffer, a native of Ohio. To this union are these nine children, viz.: Sarah E., Charles A., Mary B., Cora F., Anna May, William H., Clara L., Alva M. and Nora O. Politically Mr. Gregson is a democrat, though in local affairs he supports the man rather than the party. He and wife are members of the Liberty Chapel Christian church. This church was erected in 1895 and Mr. Gregson took a most active part in its building, giving both time and money. The Gregson family is one of the oldest in the northeastern part of Rochester township and is one of the most highly respected.

P. H. GRELLÉ, insurance and real estate of Rochester, one of the promoters of the Indiana Farmers' Building & Loan association, and for the past three years its secretary, was born in Seneca county, Ohio, Oct. 12, 1851. His father, Samuel Grelle, was an Ohio farmer, born in Perry county, that state, in 1816. He served his county as commissioner two terms, and died in 1888 as he had lived, a representative and respected citizen. His father was Philip Grelle, born in Germany and came to the United States at the solicitation of his relatives to escape service in the German army in the Napoleonic wars. The young German was not himself averse to military service, for when he arrived in this country he at once took sides with America against England, and enlisted for the war of 1812. One of his three children is still living, a Mrs. Stewart, of Howard county, Ind. Samuel Grelle married Hezekiah Brinkerhoff's daughter Ellen. She was of Scotch Irish descent and her ancestors settled in Pennsylvania near Gettysburg. P. H. Grelle is the youngest son. The living members of his father's family are: A. W.,

Logansport, a gunsmith; George H., merchandising in Mexico, Ohio; P. H. and Mary, wife of A. B. Duey, Miami county, Ind., P. H. Grelle received his physical and mental training on the farm till twenty-two. He spent two years in Heidelberg college, at Tiffin, Ohio, and on leaving there began reading law at Sandusky, Ohio, in the office of Robert McKeely. He went to Cincinnati two years later and completed a course in a law college and was admitted to practice by passing a test examination. He was for a time in the office of John A. Trimble in Cincinnati. In 1875 he located at Logansport and practiced law and conducted an insurance business, having for his partners in the latter H. B. Aldrich and later William H. Jackson, grand master of the Odd Fellows for Indiana, and now a United States official in Canada. In 1885 Mr. Grelle located in Rochester and engaged in the insurance and loan business, dropping the law. His leading insurance companies are the Aetna Life, Ohio Farmers', Westchester, of New York, Concordia, of Milwaukee, and German of Indianapolis. He was interested with Dr. Shafer in the sale of property to raise funds for establishing the normal university, served as secretary of the Rochester improvement company two years. In November, 1880, Mr. Grelle married in Logansport, Ind., Edith Hidy Enyart, a daughter of George Hidy, deceased, and adopted daughter of Joseph Enyart, who married the widow of George Hidy. Mrs. Enyart's maiden name was Lavina Abbott. Mr. and Mrs. Grelle's two children are: Lefia, aged ten, and Nondas, aged eight. Mr. Grelle is a member of the society of Ben Hur.

HENRY GUISE, of Union township, is one of the leading and enterprising farmers of Fulton county. His birth occurred in Aubbeenaubbee township, Sept. 30, 1848. His father, Benneville Guise, was born in Northumberland county, Pa., June 23, 1819, and came to Fulton county in 1844 and settled in Aubbeenaubbee township, where he lived until 1860, when he removed to Union township, where he died at seventy-four years of age. In politics he was a democrat and had served as trustee of Aubbeenaubbee township. He was a man of pure character and in his death the county lost one of its estimable citizens. The mother of Henry Guise was Sarah Guise, whose maiden name was Wentzel. She was also born in Pennsylvania and died in this county in February, 1856. Mr. Guise, the third child, was raised upon the farm. He was a student at the country school and had as a classmate Enoch Myers, who is now a prominent lawyer of this county. Mr. Guise remained at home until about twenty-one years of age, when he began farming for himself. He now owns 195 acres of fine land, forty acres of which are just over the line, in Pulaski county. Mr. Guise cleared from the green ninety acres of his land. His farms are well improved and as a farmer he is abreast of the age. His marriage with Miss Julia Luntsford was solemnized in 1873, and to this union are these six

children, viz.: Mark B., Perry, Pearl, Harvey, Maude and Grace. Mrs. Guise was born in Pulaski county and has always resided near her present home. In politics Mr. Guise is a democrat, and is a member of the Lutheran church, while his wife is a member of the German Reformed church. For forty-eight years he has been a resident of Fulton county and is one of its careful farmers and honest, conservative citizens.

JOHN HAGAN, one of the men of Fulton county who has been the promoter of his own success, was born within a quarter of a mile from where he now resides, April 25, 1854; son of Frederick and Hannah Hagan. They were both born in Germany, the father March 6, 1826, and the mother in 1824. In 1851 they emigrated to the United States and settled in Fulton county, Ind., where the father died June 12, 1889, and where the mother now resides with her children. By occupation the father was a farmer and, as a man and citizen, he was most highly respected. John Hagan is the second eldest of four living children. As a boy he worked upon the farm and attended district school. At about twenty-two years of age he began life for himself and settled where he now resides. This land at the time he settled upon it was one dense forest, which Mr. Hagan converted into a fine farm of ninety-three acres, five and a half miles southwest of Rochester. Of this land, seventy acres are under cultivation. In 1877 Mr. Hagan was married to Miss Rosa Goss, a daughter of Emanuel and Margaret Goss. Mrs. Hagan was born in Liberty township, this county, Jan. 23, 1856. To Mr. Hagan and his wife there have been born these seven children, viz.: Charles W., Edward V., Pearl E., Mollie J., Omer D., Otis H. and Effie May. In politics Mr. Hagan supports the democratic ticket in national affairs, but in local matters he supports the men who, in his judgment, are the best fitted for office. He is a member of the orders of K. O. T. M. and Tribe of Ben Hur, while he and wife are prominent members of the United Brethren church.

A. J. HAIMBAUGH, president of the Fulton County Agricultural and Mechanical association, and one of the representative farmers and stock raisers of this county, was born in Fairfield county, Ohio, in 1854. He is a son of Henry and Apalina Haimbaugh. The family came to Fulton county in 1855 and settled in New Castle township, where the parents of Mr. Haimbaugh still reside. The subject of this review is the second oldest of six children, all of whom are living. He was a student at the public schools of New Castle township. On his father's farm he continued to work until he gained his majority, and then took up farming upon his own account, and this avocation in connection with stock interests has been his business. In 1892, having disposed of his farm in New Castle township, he purchased what is known as the John Walters farm, located two miles south of Rochester, upon the Michigan road. This farm consists of 275 acres of well improved land, and

it is considered one of the best farms in Fulton county. In 1896 Mr. Haimbaugh was elected president of the Fulton County Agricultural and Mechanical society, after having held the office of vice-president for two years, and ever since his connection with the society he has labored for its success. He was united in marriage in 1876 to Miss Sarah A. Waugh, a native of Ohio. To this union are these three children: Lulu B., Katie W. and Henry Porter. In politics he is a free silver democrat, or at least believes in the theory of 16 to 1 ratio and is for tariff reform and a sufficient revenue to satisfy all the legitimate demands of the government economically administered. He and wife are leading members of the First Baptist church of Rochester and, in July, 1895, Mr. Haimbaugh was elected superintendent of the First Baptist Sunday school of Rochester. Mr. Haimbaugh is recognized as one of the leading men of affairs, and one of whose honesty and integrity there can be no question.

DR. C. F. HARTER, the pioneer physician of Akron, was born in Columbiana county, Ohio, Nov. 18, 1834, and is a son of Andrew and Mary (Motzer) Harter, natives of Germany, whence in 1834 they removed to America, and settled in Columbiana county, Ohio. The father died at the old homestead in 1880, at the age of ninety years. Five of his family of seven are yet living, namely: John, George, Mrs. Spencer Strong, David and the doctor. Our subject spent his youth on his father's farm and at the age of fourteen became a student in the academy at Poland, Mahoning county, Ohio. Deciding to take up the study of medicine he began reading at East Palestine with Dr. A. Sheets, and in order to defray his expenses at college he engaged in teaching school. He was graduated at the Ohio medical college in 1858, and acquitted himself so creditably that he was at once elected interne of St. John's hospital at Cincinnati. On Jan. 1, 1859, he came to Fulton county, locating in Henry township, where he soon built up an excellent business, and was recognized as one of the most successful physicians in this section of the state. He succeeded Dr. S. S. Terry in this field, and like that gentleman went to Rochester to enlarge his field of operations, there forming a partnership with Dr. Robbins, being absent from Akron thirteen years. He had accumulated a handsome competence, when in 1860 he retired from practice and engaged in the elevator and grain business in Rochester, but within five years he lost over \$30,000, and resumed the practice of medicine, in which he has regained much of his former financial prestige. Dr. Harter was married May 10, 1860, in this county, to Clara E., daughter of William Whittenberger, the founder of the well known family of that name in Henry township. Their children are Carrie, wife of B. F. Templeton, of Le Roy, Ills.; C. Della, who was educated in Battle Creek, Mich., at the National College of Music in Chicago, and is now a teacher of music in Hickman college of Kentucky; and

D. W., a stenographer for the Chicago telephone company. The doctor is a democrat in politics, and is a member of the board of pension examiners for Fulton county. He belongs to the Indiana State Medical society, and is an esteemed representative of his profession and a man whom to know is to honor.

WILLIAM HEETER, postmaster and merchant at DeLong, was born in Pulaski county, Ind., Nov. 10, 1854, and is a son of Adam Heeter, who was born in Union county, Pa., Dec. 3, 1818, and whose parents were Adam and Catherine Heeter, both of whom were natives of Northumberland county, Pa., and of German descent. In 1827 they emigrated to Seneca county, Ohio, and there died. Their son, Adam, was united in marriage to Mary Young, in 1841. Unto that union were born Elizabeth, Levi, Amelia, George, William, Ellen and Mary. Adam and Mary Heeter came to Indiana in 1848, settled in Pulaski county, lived there seventeen years, then removed to Aubbeenaubbee township, Fulton county, where they now reside. They are members of the German Reform church. William Heeter, the subject of this sketch, was brought up on the farm, and worked at farming up to 1884, in which year he began working on the railroad as a section hand, and continued at the same up to 1892, when he opened a general store in DeLong. Since then he has followed merchandising with success. He became postmaster of DeLong in 1893. May 3, 1894, Mr. Heeter married Roxy, daughter of the late George DeMont, of this county. Mrs. Heeter was born Jan. 29, 1859, in Marshall county, Ind., where her parents were early settlers. George DeMont and wife, whose maiden name was Kisire Owens, were natives of New York. He was of French descent. Mr. and Mrs. Heeter are members of the M. E. church. He is a member of the Independent Order of Odd Fellows, and a democrat in politics.

HENDERSON BROS. & CO.—Of this firm Bruce and Lee Henderson are members. They are brothers and are the owners of the well known Fairview stock farm. They are natives of Fulton county and though young, neither of them being yet thirty years of age, they are thorough-going and enterprising business men. They are sons of Joseph and Arvilla (Steevens) Henderson. Their father was born in Pennsylvania, 1840, and died in Fulton county, 1889. The mother was born in Marshall county, this state, in 1850, and died in Fulton county in 1882. They had three children. It was in 1857 that the father came with his father, John Henderson, to Fulton county from Pennsylvania. After his marriage he settled in Union township on a farm and here the Henderson brothers were brought up. They were given a common school education and very early in life were under the necessity of shifting for themselves. Bruce Henderson made his first business at Bruce Lake, this county, in 1887. Later he clerked for about two years in Kewanna, and then opened a store at Marshland, where his store was burned out

some nine months later, causing him a loss of about \$700. In the winter of 1890 he was advertising manager for Dr. Scott, of LaPorte, Ind. In 1891, he joined his brother Lee, who had been clerking in Chicago, where for three years Lee had management of the grocery department in "The Fair." In February, 1892, these brothers, with a capital of \$350 between them, began to manufacture and sell (in New York city) what is known as "Henderson's Wild Cherry Beverage," first with indifferent success, but success became more marked as time passed. P. F. Henderson became associated with them, and the firm of Henderson Bros. & Co. soon grew into a mammoth business. "Henderson's Wild Cherry Beverage" is known far and wide, and has been extensively sold. In 1893 the Henderson brothers purchased 150 acres of land just west of Ke-wanna and established the Fairview stock farm. The next year they began to raise fine horses. They have gained considerable reputation as breeders of fine race, road and draught horses. Among the number of fine horses they own are the following: Jesse, record 2:24 $\frac{3}{4}$; Tycho, record 2:28 $\frac{3}{4}$; Rostoko, record 2:24 $\frac{1}{4}$; Anto J., pacer; and Pandore, a Percheron Norway grey, of 2,050 pounds weight. On July 12, 1895, their barn was burned at a loss of some \$10,000. Since then they have built a new and large barn and have it arranged for great convenience in taking care of their stock. In 1895 Mr. Bruce Henderson's health failing, he moved to the farm and since then the manufacture and sale of their beverage has been under a manager in New York city. Mr. Lee Henderson has been on the road as a salesman of the beverage a great deal. He recently married Miss Celia Centelivier, of Sioux City, Iowa. In politics these brothers are democrats. They are first-class business men and have wonderful success in their undertakings.

JACOB HENDRICKSON was born in Monmouth county, N. J., April 25, 1807. His death occurred in Fulton county, Ind., Dec. 27, 1889. His parents were Matthias and Mercy (Vandeventer) Hendrickson, both of whom were of Dutch descent. When Jacob was twelve years of age his parents removed from New Jersey to Indiana, and for a very brief period resided in Dearborn county, whence they removed to Butler county, Ohio, where they lived many years, the mother dying there. Subsequent to her death the father made his home with his son, Abraham, who resided near Frankfort, Ind., and there he died at an advanced age. He was the father of five sons and one daughter, namely, Abraham, Peter, John, Isaac, Deborah and Jacob. Isaac was killed in battle, in the war with Mexico. In Butler county, Ohio, Jacob Hendrickson and Catherine Schenck were united in marriage, Feb. 23, 1832. She was born in New Jersey March 24, 1812. Her death occurred in Fulton county April 6, 1875. She was a daughter of Chrineyance and Maria Schenck, whose ancestors originally came from Holland to America. Jacob Hendrickson settled in Wayne township, Fulton

county, Ind., in the year 1841. He located in the dense forest, and the first cabin he built was constructed out of rails. It was nothing more than a rail pen, with a large door on one side, just on the outside of which the family made fires, burning from logs. This place of habitation was used only long enough to enable Mr. Hendrickson to cut logs and build a rude hut 16x20 feet, which served as a residence for some twenty years. When he came to this county his family consisted of himself, his wife and five children. In this log hut were born unto him and his wife all his other children. The following are the names of all his children: Chrineyance, John, deceased; Isaac, Peter, died in infancy; Edwin R., Maria, Sarah J., Jacob, died in infancy; Matthias, Catherine, Ada Ellen and Ann. Some two or three years after Mr. Hendrickson came to this county, he went to Cincinnati, and from there brought the first cook stove into Wayne township. In an early day, when there were three trustees for each township, Mr. Hendrickson served as one of these trustees for nine years in Wayne township. The records show that for his first year's service he received a compensation of seventy-five cents. He was among the very first settlers of the county, and when he came to the county, but little clearing had been done. He cleared much land, reared a large and industrious family, grew prosperous, owned nearly 600 acres of land at the time of his death, and had gained the respect of a wide acquaintance, when death called him from the scenes of many years of commendable life. His wife preceded him in death some fourteen years. She was a devoted wife, a loving and kind mother, and a faithful friend.

CHRINEYANCE HENDRICKSON, eldest son of Jacob and Catherine Hendrickson, was born in Butler county, Ohio, Feb. 24, 1833. He was about nine years of age when his parents came to Fulton county, and since then he has continued to reside in the county. He remained under the parental roof till March 31, 1853, at which date he married Paulina Smith, and moved upon a rented farm. His wife died in the spring of 1857, leaving a son, George P. Hendrickson, now farming and residing in Wayne township. Upon the death of his wife Mr. Hendrickson again made his home with his father and mother, until the year 1864, when he married a second time, wedding Mary Catherine Minton, who has borne him the following children, Sarah E., Catherine, Jacob, Reuben B., Louella, Hattie Ann, an infant, dying unnamed, and Norma Pearl. Mr. Hendrickson farmed as a renter up to 1873, when he bought the eighty acres on which he now resides. Besides this eighty acres he owns fifty-five additional acres. He has a good residence, barn and other improvements on his farm, and as a farmer he has been very successful. Mr. Hendrickson is a democrat in politics, and both he and wife are members of the Baptist church.

ISAAC HENDRICKSON, son of Jacob Hendrickson, of whom mention is made elsewhere in this volume, was born in Butler

county, Ohio, and was brought to Fulton county by his parents when a child. He has always resided in this county, and has followed farming, in which he has been unusually successful. He lived and farmed with his father until the death of the latter. He now owns the parental homestead, where he resides, together with his sisters—Sarah J., Ada Ellen and Ann. His acreage consists of 180 acres of fine land. Mr. Hendrickson has always voted the democrat ticket and has been identified with the representative citizens of his township.

EDWIN R. HENDRICKSON, the fifth son of Jacob and Catherine Hendrickson, was born in Butler county, Ohio, Feb. 8, 1838. He was four years old when his parents settled in Wayne township and virtually his entire life has been spent in Fulton county. He gained a limited education, for in his youth he had poor educational advantages. Besides he was under the necessity of aiding his father and brothers in clearing lands and otherwise working on the farm. He has always farmed and, although he began his career with limited means, he has prospered and now owns a splendid farm of 190 acres. He has a fine brick residence and other good buildings and besides farming he has devoted a considerable portion of his time to stock raising. In 1870 Mr. Hendrickson was united in marriage to Caroline, daughter of Henry and Mary (Long) Estabrook, who were pioneer settlers of Harrison township, Cass county, Ind., where Mrs. Hendrickson was born. Unto the above union there have been born five children, as follows: William N., Elsie E., Oron M., teacher in the district schools; Glenn A., and Ida M. Mr. Hendrickson has always been identified with the democratic party. In 1879 he was elected trustee of Wayne township, and as such served two years, making an acceptable officer.

MATTHIAS HENDRICKSON, the youngest son of Jacob and Catherine Hendrickson, was born in Wayne township, Fulton county, Ind., Jan. 13, 1848. Mr. Hendrickson's life pursuit has been farming. He remained at the parental house, farming with his father, till he was nearly thirty-two years of age, or until he was married. He was married Sept. 17, 1879, to Carrie, the daughter of Ephraim and Elizabeth Traver. Mrs. Hendrickson was born in New York state, Sept. 14, 1859. In the spring before his marriage Mr. Hendrickson purchased a tract of eighty acres, where he now resides. Upon this tract of land he moved immediately after his marriage. He has a good frame house and barn, which he built after moving onto the farm. Besides the above eighty acres he owns two other tracts of land, forty acres in one and thirty in another. Mr. and Mrs. Hendrickson's home has been blessed by the birth of the following children: Harry, Walter C., Frank, Annie, deceased; Jacob Roy, deceased, and Minnie. In politics Mr. Hendrickson has always been a firm democrat. He is a member of the I. O. O. F. and is one of the progressive men of his township.



JOHN G. HILL.

ISAAC C. HILL was born in Union township, Cass county, Ind., Feb. 29, 1856. His parents were Joseph and Mary (Cragon) Hill. His father was a native of Cass county, Ind., and a son of Joseph and Elizabeth Hill, who were pioneer settlers of Cass county. Soon after the marriage of Joseph Hill and Mary Cragon, they came to Fulton county. Two years later they returned to Cass county, where they resided until 1863, in which year they returned to Fulton county, and here lived for thirteen years and then moved to Starke county, where he died several years later. His wife preceded him in death. They had twelve children, viz.: Patrick, John, Marshall, Isaac C., Edward, Caleb, Josephine, Lucinda, Etta, Milo, Mollie and Minnie. Isaac C. Hill began the battle of life for himself at the age of seventeen years. He learned the carpenter's trade, and has followed this, together with farming, all his life. He was married in 1878 to Rebecca, daughter of Hiram Lunsford, Esq., of Pulaski county. For five years after Mr. Hill's marriage he resided in Union township, this county, but since then he has resided in Aubeenau-blee township. He has operated with success a saw-mill at Leiter's Ford; owns a good farm and is in prosperous circumstances. Unto him and his wife there have been born the following offspring: Infant, deceased; Walter; Harvey, deceased; Roy, Elmer and Bessie, deceased. Mr. Hill is a firm democrat in politics, and in 1890 was elected trustee of his township. As trustee he served five years with satisfaction to the people. Both he and his wife are members of the Baptist church, and they number among the leading families of their community.

JOHN G. HILL, the veteran carriage maker of Rochester, and one of the most progressive citizens of the county, was born in Hesse-Darmstadt, Germany, Dec. 18, 1835, the youngest of the five children of Matthias Hill, who was manufacturer of novelties, a land owner and sheep raiser. He married a Miss Green, and their children are: Margaret Beeker, of Logansport, Ind.; Anna and Elizabeth, who are also married, and our subject. The father was a soldier in the German war against Napoleon. John G. Hill acquired his education in the public school of Germany, and at the age of eighteen came to America in search of fortune. From New York he went to Philadelphia, and soon afterward to Harrisburg, Pa. His first work was as a day laborer on the Harrisburg & Reading railroad, and later he went to Lebanon, Pa., where he learned the blacksmith's trade. When he had mastered the business, he managed the shop for Christ Hoover, for several months in Lancaster, whence he removed to Myerstown, Pa., where he had charge of a carriage shop. Later he again spent a brief period in Lebanon, then attempted to join the Union army, but the quota of three months troops was filled. In search of employment he made his way to Peru, Ind., where lived his brother-in-law, and there established a custom shop, working for a year. With the true patriotic spirit of

a native American, Mr. Hill then enlisted in the Fourteenth light artillery, was ordered from Indianapolis to St. Louis and thence south, reaching Mississippi in time to take part in the battle of Corinth. On account of illness he returned to Jackson, Tenn., and there was detailed for duty as a blacksmith in the government shops in Paducah, Ky., at which place he was notified of his promotion to a second lieutenancy in the Eighth United States heavy artillery, a colored battery. In 1864 he was one of the gallant two hundred and fifty who defended Fort Paducah against six thousand rebels of Gen. Forest's army. At Port Anderson, Paducah, Ky., on March 25, 1864, he received a severe gunshot wound in the left thigh, which disabled him for six months. In this engagement the enemy lost eight hundred, the Union troops thirty-seven. Returning home at the close of the war, Mr. Hill established a small carriage shop at Fulton, whence in 1871 he removed to Rochester. After working for a time by the day for others, he entered into partnership with J. B. Feiser, building buggies, and then for two years was in the grocery business with Louis Felder, and then sold out and became a partner of Noah Craven in the carriage and wagon business. The new firm did a successful business until 1883, when our subject sold out and established the firm of J. G. Hill & Son, which profitably operated a shop until 1895, when John G. Hill became sole proprietor. The firm sold buggies, carriages and wagons all over the west as far as Kansas, and success attended their well directed efforts. Mr. Hill was married in Lancaster, Pa., in 1857, to Lizzie, daughter of Daniel Good. She died in Fulton in 1868, leaving a daughter, Amelia Leed, by her former marriage, and the following children by her marriage to Mr. Hill: Rosa R.; Elizabeth, deceased; John, who married Annie Smith; Mary, deceased, wife of George Rule; George A., and Theresa, now Mrs. J. H. Warner, of Elkhart, Ind. In 1872 Mr. Hill wedded Miss Bomberger, who died in 1873. His present wife was formerly Maggie Oneth, and their only child is named Minnie. Mr. Hill is a member of McClung post, No. 95, G. A. R., and the Knights of Honor. He has a beautiful home on Jefferson street in Rochester, and is regarded as one of the most progressive and valued citizens of the county. Politically Mr. Hill is an uncompromising republican and for many years has taken an active part in the affairs of that party.

ALLEN W. HOLEMAN, whose name introduces this biographical mention, is one of the best business men of Rochester, where he was born. Mr. Holeman is a son of Isaac W. Holeman, who in his day was one of the successful business men of Rochester. Isaac W. Holeman was born in Warren county, Ohio, on Dec. 1, 1820. He died in Rochester, Ind., on Aug. 18, 1870. He was a son of David and Mary (Welsh) Holeman. Both of his parents were natives of North Carolina, and of English ancestry. At an early date in his life David Holeman, who was a farmer, and possessed of

migratory disposition, removed from his native state to Ohio. In Ohio he first settled in Warren county, but soon after the birth of his son, Isaac W. Holeman, he removed to Preble county, that state, where he lived till the year 1836, when he settled at Wea Plains, a few miles south of Lafayette, Ind. At that time Isaac W. Holeman was about fifteen years old. The labors of his youth consisted in farm work. Early in life he was taught the value of industry and perseverance. He had gained a fair education in the country schools, when at an early age he became a school teacher. In 1844 he graduated from Wabash college, of Crawfordsville, and soon thereafter took up the study of law, in the office of Beard & Wilson, then a prominent law firm of Lafayette. In 1848 Mr. Holeman was the third lawyer to open an office in Rochester. Here he practiced his profession till 1854, in which year he gave up the law to become a merchant. For a great many years afterward he conducted a general merchandise business in Rochester. He was a successful business man, and was held in high esteem by his fellow-citizens. He served as postmaster of Rochester, and held several other positions of honor and trust. He married Louisa Willits, who was born in New Jersey. Her parents were Thomas and Mary Willits; they were natives of New Jersey and of English descent. The subject of this biographical sketch is the only child born unto Isaac W. Holeman and wife. He was brought up in Rochester and given a common school education. When he was sixteen years of age he lost his father in death. His mother is still living and her excellent counsel has been of great aid to him. "Allie," as he is familiarly known, began his business career upon the death of his father. He began as a merchant and prospered, continuing in mercantile pursuits till the year 1885, in which year he sold out his business and embarked in the grain business. As a grain dealer he again gave evidence of good business ability. In the year 1888 he disposed of his grain business and established the Fulton County bank, which he has since conducted, building up a good business. The bank is regarded a strong and safe institution. Mr. Holeman has always introduced honesty and fair-dealing into his business, and consequently he has gained the confidence of a large patronage. He is a pleasant and agreeable gentleman, both in business and social life. He is a member of several fraternal associations, among which are the following: Red Men, Knights of Pythias, Maccabees, Ben Hur and Knights of Honor.

DR. W. E. HOSMAN, of Akron, is a promising physician of Fulton county. He has been engaged in actual practice less than five years, less than two of which have been spent among the people of his native community, and it is the universal judgment of those familiar with his daily routine that his success is phenomenal. Dr. Hosman began his preparation for medicine with Dr. Knott, at Argos, Ind., and after reading one year he entered the Eclectic Col-

lege of Physicians and Surgeons at Indianapolis, Ind. He completed his course there in two years, took special course on eye and ear and graduated in 1892. He filled the chair of anatomy in the same institution the next year and was engaged in active practice in the city. During the latter part of 1894 he came to Akron and is rapidly becoming one of its foremost citizens. Dr. Hosman was born in Kosciusko, Ind., Jan. 31, 1870. His father, E. M. Hosman, is a farmer. He was born in Hancock county, Ohio, 1848, located near Akron, in Kosciusko county, before the war and was married there to Luella Miller, stepdaughter of the late James Holmes. Their children are: W. C. and Ada, in Kosciusko county, and Dr. W. E. The last named obtained his literary education at Fort Wayne M. E. college. Dr. Hosman married in Kosciusko county Nov. 10, 1892, Ada, daughter of Mrs. Nancy Baker, widow of William Baker, pioneers from Ohio. Dr. Hosman's paternal grandfather, aged ninety-four years, is still living. His wife was Elizabeth Sloan. Her children are: John Hosman, Indianapolis; William Hosman, Findlay, Ohio; James Hosman, Peru, Ind.; E. M., and one daughter, wife of Dr. Wooley, deceased, of Warsaw, Ind. Fraternally Dr. Hosman is a member of the order of Knights of Pythias, of the Independent Order of Odd Fellows, and the K. O. T. M.

J. T. HUTTON, one of the leading contractors of Indiana, was born in Dunnville, Canada, June 20, 1861. His parents came of English lineage, and his father, Richard Hutton, is a native of England, while his mother, Margaret (Tristram) Hutton, was born in Canada, where she and her husband now reside. They are the parents of eight children, of whom six are living. The father, by occupation is a contractor and has constructed many fine buildings in the dominion of Canada. J. T. Hutton obtained a liberal education in the public schools of his native country and later graduated from an academy at St. Catherine's and afterward was a student at the Toronto school of polytechnics. To be a contractor by occupation came to Mr. Hutton as if by inheritance and, under his father's guidance, he gained a liberal training along this line. He also qualified himself in the study of architecture and thus again strengthened his ability in the matter of figuring upon contracts over those whose knowledge in architecture is limited. At the early age of nineteen he had charge of some light-house work for the Canadian government, and at the end of two years the government proposed to transfer him to Nova Scotia, but preferring civil life he resigned his position and came to the United States, locating in Chicago. His first important contract in this country was twenty miles of work, upon the Chicago & Erie railway, and then did eight miles of grade and bridge work for the Canada & St. Louis railway, and other contracts were for twenty miles of bridge work for the Santa Fe railway in Missouri, and twenty miles of the same kind of work for the



J. T. HUTTON.

Ohio Valley railway in Kentucky, and the same for the Indiana Coal R. R. For the past seven years Mr. Hutton has given his attention to the erection of public and private buildings. Some of his best work may be seen at South Bend, Kokomo, Rochester and Michigan City, Ind. At Rochester he built the normal university, the South school building, the wholesale grocery house of J. P. Michael, and the fine residence of J. E. Beyer. April, 1896, he obtained the contract at Michigan City, Ind., for \$30,000 stone and brick high school building. Mr. Hutton does figuring for work in many states of the Union. For the last eight years Mr. Hutton has been a resident of Rochester. He was united in marriage in 1888 to Miss Bertha Sturgeon, a daughter of the late Enoch Sturgeon, and Anna M. (Ault) Sturgeon. To Mr. and Mrs. Hutton are these three children: Frances, William S. and J. Wallace. In politics Mr. Hutton is an ardent republican and a member of the K. of P. and K. O. T. M. fraternities. He is a man of unquestioned progress and a representative citizen of Indiana.

CHARLES JACKSON, real estate agent and secretary of the Indiana Farmers' Building and Loan association and a valued citizen of Rochester was born in Sandusky county, Ohio, Feb. 16, 1830. He was reared on the farm, educated sparingly in the common schools and was engaged in active farming till forty years old. In March, 1870, he removed to Fulton county and took up the business of merchandising in Rochester. He followed this ten years, when he closed up business and later on began dealing in machinery. One year later he engaged in the real estate and insurance business, which business he is at present prosecuting. He prosecutes claims for pensioners and has been instrumental in making many an old comrade's heart glad. Four years ago he aided in bringing into existence the Indiana Farmers' Building and Loan association, of which he is secretary and director. In politics Mr. Jackson is a republican; voted for John C. Fremont for president. He was a candidate for county clerk of Fulton some years ago and the strong vote he received was a handsome compliment to his integrity. Fraternally he is an Odd Fellow and is secretary of the local lodge. Mr. Jackson was married in Sandusky county, Ohio, Dec. 29, 1853, to Catherine Ernsperger, daughter of Christopher Ernsperger, Ohio pioneers of Maryland birth. Mr. Ernsperger died in Rochester in 1877, aged sixty-nine. His wife was Julia A. Ensminger, born July, 1812, and now living in Rochester. Mr. Jackson is the father of Alma L., Anna A., wife of Frank Huffman, of Rochester, secretary of Rochester bridge company; Frank A., Portland, Ore., general superintendent Portland gas company, married Lillie M. Weed. Charles Jackson is a son of Archibald C. Jackson, born in New York, 1794, died 1865. The paternal grandsire of our subject was Alexander Jackson, a soldier in the war of 1812. Archibald C. Jackson married Amanda Olds. Her children were: Nancy M.,

deceased, married William Gaskill; Julia A., widow of Loren Clark; Caroline, widow of E. Beaghtler, Sandusky county, Ohio; Esther, deceased, wife of T. G. McIntyre; Zeno, deceased; Charles, Martin, deceased; William Clyde, manufacturer, of Hughes Shears company; David H., Oakland, Cal., a successful miner, locating for eastern capitalists; Mary, died young; Andrew, with John and James Dobbs, Philadelphia, Pa. Charles Jackson is an active member of the Methodist church.

DANIEL JONES, one of the foremost among the representative farmers of New Castle township, was born in Marshall county, Ind., Feb. 12, 1843. His early advantages were such as the sons of pioneer farmers usually have. He obtained sufficient book knowledge while attending the log cabin school to enable him to secure license to teach about the time he became of age. He taught one term of school and then in response to a desire to see and know more of the world he went to Omaha, Neb., and there hired to the general government, first serving in the quartermaster's department and lastly as teamster. His train was engaged in hauling supplies to the forts and garrisons located in the Black Hills and in points in Wyoming. In the winter of 1865 he returned to Fort Leavenworth, Kan., and was discharged. Returning home he purchased twenty-two acres of land and engaged in farming in Marshall county, and resided there till 1873, when he sold out and bought his present farm of 100½ acres, one mile from Bloomingsburg. Here he has since resided. In 1882 Mr. Jones was elected township trustee by the democrats and was re-elected in 1884. During his regime the new Bloomingsburg school house was erected and such other public improvements made as seemed most desirable. His service was such as a conscientious, conservative man would be expected to render and his administration is pointed to as one of the successful ones in the history of the township. In August, 1872, Mr. Jones married in this county Amelia Holemar, a daughter of Charles Holemar, and a sister of George Holemar, of Rochester. Their children are: Charles, Leroy, Mary, Anna, May, Roy and Ruth. Mr. Jones' father, Tyre Jones, was a prominent and popular farmer of Marshall county for many years. He was born in Pennsylvania, reared in Ohio and was married in Crawford county, Ohio. He came to Indiana in 1830, the year the Indians were removed from Fulton county. He settled in Marshall county, where he was very successful, and died there in 1878, aged seventy, leaving an estate of 400 acres, which he had cleared himself. His wife was Sarah Ames, who died in 1880 at sixty-eight. Her surviving children are: Jordan, Harriet, Benton, Sarah, Daniel, Mary, Kline and Clara. Mr. Jones is a member of the Independent Order of Odd Fellows and the K. O. T. M. fraternities.

SAMUEL W. JULIAN, the present trustee of Wayne township, Fulton county, was born in Rush county, Ind., Oct. 11, 1829. His

parents were George and Sarah (Fullen) Julian. His father was born in North Carolina. He was a son of George Julian, who was also a native of North Carolina. The Julians trace their origin to France. The first representatives of the family settled in North Carolina before the revolution. In an early day the paternal grandfather of the subject of this biography moved with his family from North Carolina to Tennessee, and still later to Indiana, before the Indiana territory became a state. He lived and died in Rush county, this state. With him the father of our subject came to Indiana. He was married in Montgomery county, Ind., to Sarah Fullen, who was born in Indiana. She was a daughter of Samuel Fullen, whose father was born in Ireland. Samuel Fullen was a pioneer of Shelby county, Ind. The parents of our subject settled in Shelby county first, then moved to Rush county, then to Cass county, in which county the mother died in August, 1841, at the age of forty-one years. She bore her husband thirteen children, of which two brothers and two sisters are now living. The father married a second time, wedding Margaret Methon, a Scotch lady. She bore him no children. In the year 1857 he moved to Wayne township, Fulton county, where he lived till his death, which occurred in May, 1866, when he was seventy-five years of age. He was a farmer by occupation. The subject was reared on a farm and gained a common school education. He was ten years of age when his mother died. He was with his father up to the age of eighteen, when he began the battle of life for himself. He learned carpentering and followed the trade to some extent in early life. He also taught in the county schools for some five years. In the year 1855 he married Mary A. Hughes, who was born in Schuylkill county, Pa., in the year 1831, Aug. 3. She came to Indiana with her parents when about three years old. Her father was John Hughes, a pioneer of Clinton county, Ind. The first year of Mr. Julian's married life was spent in Cass county. In 1856 he settled in Fulton county, near where he now lives. He located there to teach a term of school, but he has since lived in the county. He became a farmer and has since followed that pursuit. He had limited capital to begin life on, but he has been a hard working man and by means of toiling hard and practicing economy he has grown prosperous, now owning one-quarter of a section of land in Wayne township. He has always been a democrat in politics. In the years 1867-68 he served as trustee of Wayne township. In the fall of 1864 he was elected to the same office and took charge of the same in August, 1865. His term of office will expire in August, 1869. He makes an acceptable officer, and is held in high esteem by his fellow-citizens. Mr. and Mrs. Julian have six children, viz.: Sarah Ellen, Susan M., James H., a Baptist minister; Lillie J., Frances A., and Sanford W. Mr. Julian is a Master Mason. Mrs. Julian is a zealous member of the Baptist

church. Mr. Julian, though not a member of the church, has always been friendly to the cause.

ISAIAH KATHERMAN, one of the highly esteemed agriculturists of New Castle township, was born in Union county, Pa., May 12, 1844, and comes of that sturdy German stock, which forms such an important and valued element in our American nationality. His father, Philip Katherman, was born in Union county, Pa., in 1804, and there died in 1857. He was of German lineage, as was his wife, Patience Heisy, who died in 1871, at the age of sixty-three years, leaving six children, four of whom survive, namely: Andrew, of Mifflinburg, Pa.; Emanuel, of Louisburg, Pa.; Mary, wife of Thomas Hare, of Union county, Pa., and our subject. Isaiah Katherman, when twenty-four years of age, became a resident of Kosciusko county, Ind., and there followed farming until 1836, when he came to Fulton county and purchased his present farm, which has undergone important changes in appearance. He has materially enlarged the residence and beautified its grounds, also erected a large barn, cleared many additional acres of land, and has put in one thousand rods of ditch, so that he now owns one of the best improved and most desirable farms of the township. Mr. Katherman's labors as an agriculturist have been interrupted only by his service in the army. He made for himself an honorable military record, although little more than a school boy when he enlisted at Harrisburg in company A, One Hundred and Thirty-first Pennsylvania infantry for nine months. The regiment was first engaged in opposing Lee's attempted invasion of the north and participated in the battle of Sharpsburg, Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville. Mr. Katherman then returned to Pennsylvania, for his time had expired, but soon re-enlisted, joining company K, of the Twenty-sixth Pennsylvania infantry. On leaving this command he entered the Third heavy artillery, for service at Fortress Monroe, but found that the quota there was filled, and was transferred to company B, One Hundred and Eighty-eighth Pennsylvania infantry, with which he went to Yorktown, participating in all the arduous service in Virginia with Gen. Grant in 1864. This service included the battles of Cold Harbor, Seven Pines, Bermuda Hundred and Deep Bottom, which led to the imprisonment of the Confederates in Richmond. He also participated in the capture of Fort Harris, the battles of Dutch Gap and Petersburg, and entered the rebel capital as Lee was evacuating it. After the surrender, his regiment went to Danville, Va., doing guard duty there for some months. Mr. Katherman was mustered out at City Point, Va., receiving his discharge at Philadelphia, with the rank of sergeant. In August, 1886, was celebrated the marriage of Mr. Katherman and Susan Smith, daughter of Leonard Smith, a native of Pennsylvania, who removed to Indiana. They have one son, Boyd, born in May, 1890. Mr. Katherman is a stalwart republican, deeply interested in the success of his party, but

has no desire for public office. Socially he is connected with James Raber post, G. A. R., of Mentone.

SAMUEL KEELY, ex-clerk of Fulton county, was born in Shelby county, Ind., March 23, 1836. At seven years of age his father took him to Indianapolis, and resided till he was seventeen, when he located on a farm in this county. At twenty-six years of age he moved to Rochester and engaged in the dry goods business with F. B. Ernsperger. He withdrew from this firm in eighteen months and worked at his trade, laying brick. We find him next with A. J. Holmes & Co in the implement business. In this line he was an employee two years, and the following three years was the proprietor of the business. In 1870 he was nominated by the democratic party for county clerk and was elected by a majority of 161. The efficiency of his service can best be judged by the size of his majority for a second term, in 1874, when he defeated his opponent by 418 votes. He bought a grist-mill in Cambria, Wis., in 1880, equipped it completely and ran it only four weeks, when it burned to the ground. He came back to Rochester and together with Charles Caffyn and Daniel Agnew built the Rochester gravel road, of which he was superintendent from 1883 to December, 1895, when Fulton county bought the property. Mr. Keely owns a fine 160-acre farm two miles from Argos, Marshall county. Oct. 4, 1860, Mr. Keely married in this county Miss E. M., a daughter of Christopher Ernsperger, who was born in Maryland, moved west to Ohio and thence to Indiana. He died in this county June 16, 1877, aged seventy-two years. His wife was Julia A. Ensminger, now living in Rochester at nearly eighty-four years of age. Mr. and Mrs. Keely's children are: Helen V., wife of H. A. Reiter, of Hammond, Ind.; Annetta, educated in Rochester and Terre Haute; Margaret L., and Harry S. Mr. Keely is of German descent. Samuel Keely, grandfather of our subject, was born in Pennsylvania, was a farmer and mechanic. He settled first in Butler county, Ohio, on leaving his old home, and in 1818 became a pioneer settler in Shelby county, Ind. He died in Indianapolis in 1848, aged fifty-six. He was a successful business man and by his marriage with Catherine McGee was the father of ten children, six of whom are living: Oliver, William H. and Samuel, who are in Indianapolis, and Eliza J., Mrs. John McFall and Mrs. Caroline Varney, who are in Decatur county, Ind. James Keely, father of our subject, was born in Butler county, Ohio, Aug. 18, 1812. He was a mason by trade, a man of robust constitution and of industrious habits. He died in Rochester in 1892. He was once county commissioner of this county. In early manhood was a democrat, but in 1857 became a republican. He married in Shelby county, Ind., Mary A., daughter of Anthony W. McKee, who was born in Butler county, Ohio, was a farmer and served as a soldier in the western department of the United States army during the war of 1812. He married Nancy Agnew, who bore

him ten children, all of whom are deceased. James Keely's children were: Samuel, Nancy, widow of Thomas J. McAnally; Catherine, deceased, married to John Collins; Mary J., deceased, wife of Adam Ault; Phoebe, deceased, married to Thomas Gilchrist; Sarah A., wife of John Ault, living in Oklahoma; Frances, widow of William Brough, a resident of Rochester; Julia A., widow of Joseph Carr, of Indianapolis; Anthony W., of Hartford City, Ind., and Caroline, wife of William Stubbs, of Marion, Ind. His life has been an active one, and his success in business has enabled him to accumulate an ample fortune.

PATRICK KELLY was born in Allegheny county, Pa., Feb. 27, 1833, and is a son of John and Mary Magdaline (Wyble) Kelly. His father was a native of county Kilkenny, Ireland, while his mother was a native of Germany. They were married in Pennsylvania, and unto their marriage were born the following children: Patrick, Mary, John, deceased; Bridget, deceased; Elizabeth, James, Margaret, Ann, and Jane, deceased. Soon after the birth of Patrick his parents removed to Ohio, thence to Indiana, settled first in Carroll county, and subsequently the father entered eighty acres of land in Union township, Fulton county, and moved onto the same in November, 1839, becoming a very early settler of the county. These early pioneers reared their family in Union township, where the mother died, preceding the father many years in death. He died in 1889, at the advanced age of eighty-eight years. Both he and she were buried at Winamac. Patrick Kelly was reared mainly in Fulton county. In 1857 he married Lavina, a daughter of Henry Bruce, a pioneer settler in Aubbeenaubee township. She bore him two children and was then called away by death in 1859. The elder child died in infancy. The younger was named Edward Michael Kelly. He was born in Pulaski county, Ind., Dec. 1, 1859, and was married in 1882, Nov. 15, to Miss Catherine Carroll, daughter of Owen and Bridget Carroll. She was born in Pulaski county, Ind., March 7, 1862. Unto Edward M. Kelly and wife there have been born the following children: Dessie L., Elmer Edward, Patrick F. and Clara B. In 1862 Patrick Kelly married for a second wife Mary M., daughter of Jacob Ruff, a pioneer settler of Pulaski county, where Mrs. Kelly was born Nov. 5, 1844. For about five years after his marriage Mr. Kelly farmed, and then up to about 1867 he was in business, first at Star City, then at Winamac. About 1868 he began saw-milling and has since followed the business. In 1875 he located at Blue Grass, Wayne township, where he has continued to reside. He has been a successful business man and is a representative citizen. He is a democrat and has served as justice of the peace since 1892. He and his wife are members of the Roman Catholic church, to which church his son and son's family also belong. His son resides in Blue Grass and is associated with his father in business.

JOHN KESLER, the present auditor of Fulton county, first saw

the light of day in Richland county, Ohio. He was born April 1, 1836. His parents were Peter and Eliza (Windbigler) Kesler. They were born near Shafers-town, Lancaster county, Pa. The father was born in 1809 and the mother in 1816. Peter Kesler was a son of Abraham Kesler, a native of Pennsylvania, of German ancestors. Mr. Kesler's mother, who is now (1896) living with him, is a daughter of John and Mary (Buchter) Windbigler. They were natives of Pennsylvania and of German descent. The marriage of Peter Kesler and Elizabeth Windbigler was consummated in Ohio, and they settled down in life in Richland county, of that state. In the year 1852 they came to Fulton county and settled on a farm in New Castle township, where Mr. Kesler died in his sixty-sixth year. Their son, whom this mention concerns, was eighteen years of age when his parents came to Fulton county. His education was limited to the country schools. Though brought up on the farm he learned the gunsmith's trade, which he followed together with farming for twelve years. In 1856 Mr. Kesler married Mary Jane Kessler, who was born in Preble county, Ohio. Her father was John M. Kessler, who was born in Miami County, Ohio, Jan. 30, 1818, and was united in marriage with Malinda Harriman, of his native state, born Nov. 99, 1809. John M. Kessler was a son of Ulrich Kessler, a native of Virginia, of German descent. The family name of our subject, and that of his wife, though pronounced the same, are spelled differently, and so far as known the two families are not related. Mr. Kesler has been twice married. His first wife bore him twelve children, of which five are deceased. She died in March of 1890, and in February, 1892, Mr. Kesler married the second time, wedding Mrs. Martha Hamlet, nee Bybee, who is his present wife. Mr. Kesler began the battle of life with no capital other than willing hands and fixed purpose to succeed. As a farmer he long since became prosperous. He owns a well-improved farm in New Castle township, where he lived till he became the auditor of the county, to which office he was elected as the republican candidate, in the fall of 1894, by 128 majority. Mr. Kesler enlisted in company F, Eighty-seventh Indiana volunteer infantry, August, 1862, but after a short time of service was discharged on account of physical disability.

ISAAC A. KESSLER, ex-trustee of New Castle township, was born in Henry county, Ind., June 23, 1848. His father, John Kessler, was born in North Carolina, and with his parents removed to the vicinity of Dayton, Ohio, and was there reared and educated. He came to Indiana at an early date, and settled in Henry county. He married Mary Anderson and reared a family of eight children. Mrs. Kessler had been married previously to a Mr. Cates, whose son John Cates, now residing in Wisconsin, served as treasurer of Fulton county. Her children by her second marriage are: Simeon, Rachel, wife of James Paxton; Mary J., wife of Jacob Wallburn; Isaac A. and Albert B. Isaac picked up a few of the rudi-

ments of an English education while enrolled as a pupil in the district school. He began life as a farm hand, employed, as is usual, by the month, and remained as such for nine years. Although he received as good wages as were paid for such work, when he had finished his last month as a hired man he had very little surplus funds. He seemed to be fond of travel and when he had a snug bundle ahead he spent it sight seeing. One of these trips was made through Kansas and Missouri. Dec 12, 1875, Mr. Kessler married Mary E. Barkman, whose father, John Barkman, was a well known farmer of this county. The only issue of this union is Sadie M., born March 2, 1878. Mr. Kessler has followed farming for an occupation. His farm consists of seventy-three acres, and has many improvements and is under a good state of cultivation. In politics Mr. Kessler has been active as a democrat and in 1890 was honored by his party with an election to the office of trustee, in which position he served five years. Mr. Kessler has also served his township as constable many years. Recurring to Mr. Kessler's antecedents, his paternal grandfather was John Kessler, born in Virginia. His early life was spent in North Carolina, where he resided till 1808, when he came north to Dayton, Ohio. He came to Indiana with his son John and died in Kosciusko county, perhaps fifty years ago. He was a teacher all his life. His father was German born. Our subject's father died in Labette county, Kan., 1874, at seventy-four years of age. His wife died in this county 1880, at seventy-nine years of age.

CHARLES A. KILMER.—This enterprising citizen and business man is a native of Fulton county, born Nov. 28, 1860, in a log cabin that for years stood upon the bank of the Tippecanoe river. The parents, L. G. and Eliza J. (Spencer) Kilmer, were natives of Indiana. After the death of the mother in 1871 Mr. Kilmer, until fourteen years of age, was raised by his maternal grandparents. At this age he began making his own way in the world. He obtained some education at the public schools, but the major portion of his knowledge has been acquired in the more severe, yet more effective school of practical experience. Beginning his business career he entered the employ of the well known house of Feder & Silberberg, of this city, where he remained for four years, and then for one year was in the lumber business and later was for some four years in the wholesale grocery business in the employ of J. P. Michael & Co., of Rochester. Dec. 28, 1895, he began the retail grocery business on the south side of the public square in the city. Here he is carrying about \$3,000 worth of choice, fresh goods in his line. He has one of the best arranged stores for his business in Rochester. Success is bound to be the result of this business venture when it is fully understood that this is absolutely the only cash retail grocery house in this city. Mr. Kilmer was united in marriage May 30, 1894, to Miss Indiana Virginia Baker, daughter of the wealthy lumber man, An-

anias Baker. To Mr. and Mrs. Kilmer one child has been born, Helen Marie, who died May 23, 1895. In politics Mr. Kilmer is a democrat. He is a member of the I. O. O. F. He and Mrs. Kilmer are leading members of the Christian church. For three years he has been superintendent of the Christian Sunday school and is now president of the Christian Endeavor society and clerk of the church. He is a man of practical business attainment, and he and wife are numbered among the best people of the city.

JOHN KING, ex-sheriff of Fulton county and a familiar figure in democratic politics, was born in Fairfield county, Ohio, Oct. 16, 1840. He grew up in the village of Lockville and secured a meager education. He selected mechanics as a livelihood and when twenty years old began learning the carpenter's trade under an older brother, Henry King. Soon after completing his term of service he came to Fulton county and he came a resident of New Castle township. He spent the succeeding twenty-five years in that township, doing largely the building and general improving on superstructure done during that period. His best residences were those of John Kesler, Sol. Wagner, Henry Heimbaugh, George Perschbaugher, Lawrence McArter, John Heimbaugh, Charles King and others to a grand total of 168 residences. He has built upward of sixty barns, five elevators and the shoe factory in Rochester. Mr. King became a citizen of Rochester late in the fall of 1892. He came as the sheriff elect and was inducted in to office Nov. 24 of that year. His majority was over 200. He demonstrated his capacity as a peace officer, and his efficiency as a public servant, but all this counted for naught so far as it affected the result at the next election. Democracy seemed to be doomed in 1894 and whoever happened to be its standard bearer went down with it. The landslide came along and Mr. King being his party's candidate for re-election went out of office just two years after he went in. The past two years Mr. King has had no business beyond supervising work on his farm and doing an occasional turn with saw and plane. Sept. 12, 1863, Mr. King was married in Fairfield county, Ohio, to Susan A., daughter of Washington Flood, born in Virginia; came to Ohio early and engaged in the confectionery business. He died about the year 1850. Mr. and Mrs. King's children are: Frances, twenty-nine, wife of George N. Clymer, of Rochester; Milo O., M. D., twenty-seven, graduated from Rush medical college, Chicago, May 28, 1896; Leander, twenty-four, a professional bookkeeper, graduated from Grand Rapids commercial college 1893; Annetta, twenty-one; Stella, eighteen; Albert fifteen, and Emma thirteen. Mr. King's first child, Sarah Jane, died at two years. John King is a son of Michael King, who married Susan, daughter of a Mr. Slagle, of German birth. Michael King was born in Berks county, Pa., 1808. He moved to Ohio about 1836. He was a farmer. His death occurred in this county 1868. His wife died four years later, aged sixty-three. Their family

consisted of: Anna, Mary, wife of David Boyer, of Franklin county, Ind.; Sarah, wife of Conrad Heimbaugh, of New Castle township, Fulton county. Michael, Fairfield county, Ohio; John, George, New Castle township, and Susan, now Mrs. Amos Selby, Rochester. John King is a Mason and a K. of P. His reputation is that of an honest, square, upright citizen. He is a useful member of society, useful to his family and useful to the public.

FRANCIS M. KLINE, a prosperous and representative farmer, was born in Union township, Marshall county, Ind., Dec. 16, 1855. His parents were Diebold and Elizabeth (Wingart) Kline, natives of Germany. His father was born June 14, 1814, and his mother Nov. 10, 1822. From the age of eight years Diebold Kline made his own way in the world. At the age of eighteen years he came to America and settled in Pennsylvania, where he was employed six years as a farm hand. He then went to Canada, where he was likewise employed for two years. He then went to Buffalo, N. Y., and there became a hostler for a lake captain. While thus engaged he visited Marshall county, Ind., and entered fifty-two acres of land on the east bank of Lake Maxinkuckee. Returning to Buffalo he married Elizabeth Wingart, in July, 1849, and immediately came to Indiana and settled on the above named fifty-two acres of land. Here he lived six years, then selling the land, purchased another tract in the same vicinity, and this latter tract of land his wife now occupies. Unto Diebold Kline and wife were born the following children: Theodore, George W., Francis M., Mary, deceased; Diebold, Henry W., deceased; John, William and Sarah. The father's death occurred May 14, 1887. Francis M. was married at the age of twenty-two to Sarah, daughter of Gideon and Justina Mahler. The above marriage has given issue to the following children: Bertha C., Mary E., Cleveland C. and Carrie D. Mr. Kline and his estimable wife are members of the Trinity Reform church. Politically he is a staunch democrat.

JOHN J. KUMLER, the present treasurer of Fulton county, is an esteemed citizen and prosperous farmer. He was a soldier in the civil war. He enlisted as a private in company K, Seventeenth Ohio regiment, Sept. 4, 1861. He was promoted in May, 1864, to corporal, and as such was discharged July 21, 1865. He participated in all of the battles of the army of the Cumberland, was in the Atlanta campaign, and was wounded at Missionary Ridge Nov. 25, 1863. He went into the army a democrat in politics, but came out a republican. He served one term as trustee of Wayne township, Fulton county, making an acceptable officer. In 1894 the republican party nominated him as its candidate for county treasurer, to which office he was elected in November of that year, and of which office he is the present acceptable incumbent. Mr. Kumler was born in Fairfield county, Ohio, Jan. 14, 1840. His parents were Henry and Leah

(Meinhart) Kumler. They were of German ancestry. Henry Kumler was a son of Henry Kumler, who was born in Germany. Mr. Kumler's parents were married in Ohio. They settled in Fairfield county, that state, where the mother died in 1844, when Mr. Kumler was but three and a half years old. She left one other child, a son, Noah Kumler, of Fairfield county, Ohio. The father subsequently married a second time, and became the father of several children. He followed farming, and lived many years in Fairfield county, where he died in 1884, at the age of seventy-seven years. His son, whose name introduces this brief mention, was brought up to farming and has followed the same throughout his career. He gained a limited education, having attended school just fifty-two and a half days. When the civil war came on he was a farm hand, working for eleven and one-half dollars per month. He came to Indiana in 1865, and settled in Fulton county, where he has since continued to reside. In the same year he married Almedia Urbin, a native of his own county. Mr. and Mrs. Kumler have had fourteen children, of which five are dead. They are members of the U. B. church. Mr. Kumler is a member of Bennett post, No. 183, G. A. R. He has been very successful as a farmer, and is widely and favorably known. His farm residence is in Wayne township.

F. M. LEAVELL, a well known farmer near Fulton, Liberty township, was born in Miami county, Feb. 25, 1834. His boyhood, youth and manhood have been passed on the farm. He was brought to Miami county, Ind., 1836, by his father, Richard Leavell, who died in 1849, aged forty. He married Nancy Dye, who still survives at eighty-seven. Her children are: Madison, Miami county; Eleanor, deceased, married E. Lowman, J. W., Miami county; F. M., J. P., Sarah, wife of George Marley, this county; Henry H., S. C., Osage county, Kan. Our subject was partially reared by his grandfather, Robert Leavell, who was born in South Carolina, went to Ohio as a pioneer and died there. F. M. Leavell got his start by working for wages. March 25, 1858, he was married in Miami county to Ruth Ann, a daughter of Eli Chalk, born in England. Mrs. Leavell was born in Cass county fifty-five years ago. Her children are: R. J., Rochester; J. F., George C., Nancy E., wife of Edwin Morris; Eva, wife of E. J. Dowd; Edwin E. and Ruth Gertrude. Mr. Leavell enlisted at Logansport, Ind., in company G, Seventy-third regiment, I. V. I., and went at once into Kentucky; was in the fight at Stone river; was on the raid with Col. Straight around Tusculumbia, Ala., and was captured near Rome, Ga., and taken to Bell island, near Richmond, but was exchanged at City Point soon after and rejoined the army around Nashville after a rest from June to November, 1863. Was detailed on the siege guns at Nashville for a time; served next on Tennessee river in Northern Alabama, and went back to Nashville at the close of the war and was mustered out about July 1, 1865. He returned to Perrysburg, Ind.,

at once and engaged in wagon making there the following seven years. He commenced farming in 1873 and has continued it since. He is a republican and has served as supervisor and is highly respected by the community. He owns a good farm one mile southwest of Fulton.

N. J. LIDECKER, owner and operator of the Akron saw-mill, is one of the most thoroughly reliable and progressive business men of Henry township and, during his nine years identification with the interests of Fulton county, has won the respect and confidence of all who know him. He was born Jan. 29, 1850, in Marshall county, Ind. His father, John Lidecker, a native of Prussia, came to this state sixty-four years ago, and for a time worked as a day laborer, but later became an engineer on the Pittsburg, Fort Wayne & Chicago railroad. He was married at Canal Dover, Ohio, to Julia Evil, whose father was also of German birth. After the death of her husband, Mrs. Lidecker became the wife of Jacob Stein, also now deceased. She is residing near Bremen, Ind. Her children are John and Charles, of Bremen; N. J.; Julia, wife of Frank Walters, proprietor of a hotel in Bremen; and William, who died in 1804. Throughout his life, N. J. Lidecker has been connected with the lumber trade. As a boy he worked in a saw-mill, and at the early age of sixteen was thrown entirely upon his own resources, but his energy and industry made his services in demand and he found no difficulty in securing employment. He is to-day the owner of one of the best saw-mills in Fulton county, having succeeded to the business of J. H. Bennett. This mill has a capacity of fifteen thousand feet per day, and furnishes employment regularly to nine men, who are engaged in the care of the manufactured product that is shipped to various parts of the country. Mr. Lidecker has given close attention to his business, has kept abreast with the improvement of the times in every particular, and is so thoroughly informed as to the needs of the trade that customers place the utmost reliance in his judgment, while his honesty is above question. He is now enjoying a large and lucrative business, and his success is certainly well merited. Mr. Lidecker was married in Marshall county, Ind., Aug. 2, 1883, to Sarah A. Smith, whose father, Michael Smith, was a native of Pennsylvania. They have a pleasant home in Akron, and many friends throughout the community. In politics Mr. Lidecker is a democrat.

CAPT. H. C. LONG, one of Rochester's oldest and best known citizens, was born in Boone county, Ind., May 31, 1837. His parents were Elihu and Susan (Martin) Long. The father, of Irish and English lineage, was born in Delaware, 1797, and died in Rochester, 1882. His mother was born of Scotch parentage, in Pennsylvania, in 1790, and died in Rochester, 1851. These parents were married in Highland county, Ohio, where their parents had settled in an early day. From Ohio they moved to Indiana, in 1828, first settling

near Indianapolis, but soon afterward they removed to Boone county, thence to Clinton county, thence to Pulaski county, and in 1847 they located in Rochester, where they lived till death called them away. Unto them were born eight children. The father was a shoemaker by trade and taught the subject of this brief mention the principles of this trade, which the son followed for many years. The father and son became associated as partners in the shoe business when our subject was twenty-one years of age. In 1881 Capt. Long discontinued the business and for five or six years thereafter was engaged in the carriage and buggy business. For the last several years he has been a notary public and pension attorney. In 1856 he and Adelaide Barnum were united in marriage. Unto the union were born a son and daughter, namely, Horace E. and Lewella. In September, 1861, Mr. Long enlisted in the Thirty-sixth Indiana infantry. Six months later he was discharged by special order from department commander. In August, 1862, he re-enlisted as a private in Company F, Eighty-seventh Indiana infantry. Upon the organization of this company he was chosen first sergeant, and soon passed the successive promotions of second and first lieutenant, and in April, 1863, was made captain of his company, and as such served until the close of hostilities, and June 10, 1865, was discharged. Capt. Long has always been identified with the republican party, and fraternaly he has long been a member of the Independent Order of Odd Fellows, and the Grand Army of the Republic.

WILLIAM MACKEY LOOMIS, one of the progressive and successful business men of Rochester, was born in Fulton county June 29, 1858, and is a son of Noah and Mary (Mackey) Loomis. The father was born in Massachusetts, and was a son of Norman Loomis, who was descended from an old Massachusetts family, whose first representatives in America were among the Mayflower emigrants. Norman Loomis and family came to Fulton county in an early day, and here the parents of our subject were married. Mary Mackey Loomis, the mother of our subject, was born in Indiana. She is a daughter of William Mackey, who came from the Old Dominion state to Fulton county at a very early date in the history of the county. Noah Loomis, the father of William M., died in 1860, and his widow and only child then made their home with our subject's maternal grandfather till his death, which occurred in 1870. William worked on the grandfather's farm and attended the common schools. He entered Wabash college in 1879, graduating in the class of 1884. He began farming immediately after his return from school, and continued the same up to 1894, when he became a merchant. He opened a dry goods store and has since conducted business in general merchandising. He has been secretary of the Fulton county Agricultural society, and his efforts were fruitful in rendering successful the fairs held by the society. In 1888 Mr. Loomis and Ella May Shepard were united in marriage. Unto the

union have been born two sons and two daughters, viz.: Zethie, Shepard, Dewey and Elta. Mr. Loomis is a member of the order of Knights of Pythias, and is a republican in politics.

REV. N. L. LORD.—Among the men whose lives have been an influence for good in this county is the venerable Rev. Nathan L. Lord, who was engaged in the ministry in this and adjoining counties for nearly a quarter of a century, but for the past dozen years practically retired. He was born in Lewis county, N. Y., Aug. 23, 1815. He grew up on his father's farm and at the age of five years was sent to the village school. He entered Amherst college at eighteen and was graduated from that famous university four years later. He engaged in teaching some three or four years, while reading preparatory to entering the ministry. At twenty-nine years of age he was licensed by the New York presbytery at Watertown and his first work was as a supply at Constableville, N. Y. The next year he started west, stopping temporarily at Shalerville, Ohio. The year 1845 he reached Dubois county, Ind., and there remained five years. He came north and was stationed at Plymouth, Ind., three years, at the end of which time he removed to the vicinity of Argos. While there he began his work in Rochester. In 1860 he moved his family here and has since been one of Rochester's most respected and valued citizens. He returned to educational work while filling the pulpit in this county, and was principal of a Rochester school and afterward was employed as assistant, teaching the languages exclusively. He retired from the school room about 1870, and from the ministry, except for an occasional funeral or other special sermon, about 1885. Since his retirement his time has been passed on a small farm west of Rochester, or at his home in this city. Rev. Lord is descended from the Lords of Norwich, Conn. His father, Gurdon Lord, being born there about 1780. At twenty years of age he emigrated west to New York state and aided in clearing up the county where our subject was born. He was a soldier in the war of 1812, and was a son of Nathan Lord, also a native of Connecticut. Gurdon married Sallie Dewey, from Massachusetts. Their children were Lydia Horr, who died at Ravenna, Ohio, 1893; John D., died at Leyden, N. Y.; Nathan L., and Mary Ann, deceased. Rev. Lord was married at Plymouth, Ind., in June of 1851, to Mrs. Emeline Hawley, a daughter of Squire Rose, a native of Canandaigua, who became one of the early citizens of Marshall county. Mrs. Lord's only child was by her first husband, and was a daughter named Helen, now the widow of Christopher Fitzgerald, who died in Rochester seven years ago, leaving the following children: Edwin H., druggist, Goshen, Ind.; Carrie, Nellie, and William L. Rev. Lord has kept aloof from politics. He has always been a strong and powerful advocate of temperance. His career has been blameless and spotless, and his life exemplary.

HON. CHARLES J. LORING, M. D., is one of the leading

physicians and surgeons of Fulton county, and a man of unquestioned public spirit and enterprise. He was born in Grant county, Ind., Sept. 22, 1850, and is a son of John and Nancy (Cain) Loring. His father was born in Darke county, Ohio, in 1804, and died at Monterey, Ind., in 1872. His ancestors, who were of French origin, were early settlers of New Jersey. Dr. Loring's mother was born in Randolph county, Ind., in 1823, and died April 26, 1896, in Marshall county, Ind. She bore her husband ten children, three of whom died in infancy. The parents of Dr. Loring were unable to give their children a good education, and hence the schooling the subject of this biography received was confined to the country schools. Early in his youth he developed strong love for books, and to them he made close application. Although he lived and worked on a farm till twenty-six years of age, his ambition to lead a professional life was made possible through school teaching as a stepping-stone. He secured a teacher's license at the age of eighteen years, and became a teacher. In the winter he taught in the district schools, and in the summer tilled the soil. Having previously taken up the study of medicine, he entered the Indiana medical college, at Indianapolis, in the fall of 1877. After taking a course in medicine, he located at Walnut, Ind., and began the practice of his chosen profession in 1878. In the fall of 1879 he re-entered the Indiana medical college, whence he graduated in March, 1880. In 1879 he married Augusta F. Bair, who died at Tiosa, Ind., in 1881, leaving a daughter, Dessa A. In 1882 he married Mrs. Malinda Phillips, nee Thompson. In 1883 he removed to Rochester, where he has grown into prominence, not only as a physician, but as a public spirited citizen. He has always been a firm republican in politics. His party made him its candidate for the legislature in 1894, and though he had a democratic majority to overcome in the county, he was elected to the office, and as a member of the house of representatives in the fifty-ninth session of the general assembly of 1895, he proved himself an able legislator. He was a member of the benevolent, scientific and statistical committees and was chairman of the committee on medicine, health and vital statistics. Having the disposition to favor all interests of public enterprise, he introduced the bill which became a law and which made it possible for the county commissioners to purchase toll roads, thus relieving the people of a great burden and hence encouraged the further and more extensive building of gravel roads throughout the counties. Dr. Loring is an active member of the I. O. O. F., in which he has filled all the offices of the subordinate lodge, and is a member of the grand lodge of the state. In 1890 he became a member of the order of Knights of Pythias, and has taken much interest in this fraternal organization. He has surmounted many obstacles that have come before him in the course of his life, and to-day he stands as an example of much that may be accomplished by industry, perseverance and integrity.

DAVID M. LOUGH was born in Marion county, Ind., March 22, 1845. David Lough's father was born in Tennessee, Dec. 4, 1802. His emigration to our country was shipped from Germany to America in 1841, the Quakers for his passage. There were three brothers shipped to America, each having to work out his passage, and being compelled to labor seven years. The father, David Lough, came to our land in 1822 and settled in Marion county. He came to Fulton county in 1830, which was then in a very primitive state. The family of David Lough consisted of eleven children—David, deceased; William, Lucinda, Jacob, Lewis, Harrison, John, Mary Jane, Martha, deceased; Washington, deceased; David. Upon coming to Indiana he settled on the farm now owned by his son James. At the time of his death he owned 240 acres. He died about 1880. His wife preceded him in death, May 10, 1872. David remained with his parents on the farm until he was thirty years of age, during the meantime received but a common school education. However, he really made his own way from the age of twelve, first making his home with his father. At about the age of twenty Mr. Lough purchased some 120 acres of land, having saved up the money for the same. He had been interested in buying and selling stock. April 10, 1880, he married Mary F. Caple, the daughter of John and Magdalena Caple, then residents of Union county, Fulton county. To this marriage have been born two children—Frank and Ruth Anna. After his marriage Mr. Lough moved upon the farm he had previously purchased, where he has since resided. He has always been interested in farming and stock raising, and been a staunch democrat. He and his wife are members of a Methodist Episcopal church. In the spring of 1870 David Lough was elected to fill the unexpired term of S. J. Barger as trustee of the township. He was elected as trustee in 1880 for another term of years. Mr. Lough is a prosperous and industrious farmer, owning 360 acres of valuable land, which he has greatly improved.

WILLIAM H. LOVATT, a member of the board of commissioners of this county, and one of the extensive and most progressive farmers of the county, is a native of Pennsylvania, born at Spruce Hill, Juniata county, in 1845. He is the son of William H. Lovatt, a native of Staffordshire, England, who was born Feb. 13, 1812, and came to the United States in 1822, settled in Pennsylvania and in 1828 removed to Troy, Ohio, and later removed to Indiana, where in 1851 he came to Indiana and settled at Peru, Ind., where he is residing. The mother of Mr. Lovatt was born in Pennsylvania, in 1810, and died at Peru, Ind., Dec. 26, 1877. Mr. Lovatt received a common school education and then learned the millwright's trade, then the miller's and machinist's trade, and then spent some years managing Hadley's foundry and machine works at Peru, Ind., in 1870 he purchased the plant and continued the



THOMAS F. LOVATT.

same, until 1885, when he sold out and went to Ashtabula county, Ohio, and engaged in farming. There he had 400 acres of land and in 1886 made a trade for 806 acres in Fulton county, and to that he has since added forty acres, making now in one body 846 acres. This land was for many years known as the Rettig farm and is located six miles southwest of Rochester. Mr. Lovatt has employed his best effort and used a large sum of money in the improvement of this farm until now it is one of the best farms in northern Indiana. Mr. Lovatt also owns a farm of 170 acres located on the Wabash river, six miles from Peru, where he has valuable holdings. These farms are supplied with the latest improved machinery known to the science of agriculture and are arranged for raising and caring for stock. Mr. Lovatt was united in marriage April 11, 1878, to Mrs. Louisa Hackley, a native of Ohio. The father of Mrs. Lovatt was Samuel Rector, who was born near Lexington, Ky. He was a soldier in the war of 1812. He died in 1847 and is buried at Peru. Both the grandfathers of Mrs. Lovatt were soldiers in the Revolutionary war. To the first marriage of Mrs. Lovatt are these three children, viz.: Emma, now Mrs. A. Clewell; Cora A., now Mrs. H. E. Friek, of Peru, and L. R. Hackley, now a resident of Indianapolis, and connected with the electric light company of that city. Politically Mr. Lovatt is a pronounced republican and in 1894 was elected a commissioner of Fulton county, and during his term as such the new court house has been erected. He is a member of the Masonic and Pythian fraternities. He is a man of affairs and fully abreast of the times.

SILAS LOWMAN, a prominent and well known citizen of Liberty township, was born in Miami county, Ind., Dec. 29, 1846. He was reared and trained to the duties of the farm and when he started in life for himself he located in Cass county and resided there till coming into Fulton in 1872. He bought eighty acres in the forest and began the battle of life not under the most favorable circumstances. He has kept at the business of clearing and improving and reaching out for more land until he owns a farm of twice its original size and a good producer. Mr. Lowman married April 16, 1868, Mary C., a daughter of Charles McElwee, who married Catherine Bosh and settled in Cass county very early. Mrs. Lowman died July 1, 1881, leaving one child, Anna M., wife of E. Zigler, of this county. Dec. 29, 1881, Mr. Lowman married Margaret E. Senclair, daughter of George Senclair. The children of this union are: Edwin, Morris, Clara B. and Hughell. Silas Lowman is a son of Abraham Lowman, born near Dayton, Ohio. He died in Miami county, Ind., 1882, at seventy years of age. He married Jane B. Hughell, who was the mother of Ephraim, Huntington county; Susana, wife of E. Woodhouse, Cass county; Samuel, Marshall county; Elizabeth, deceased, wife of J. M. Persmete; Joseph, in Kansas; John, in Wabash county; Silas, Hmury, married Elias Mc-

Cowan, and Richard, in Rochester; Nancy Jane Serber, wife of William Simons, of Mexico, Ind., was reared in this family. The mother of these children, who still survives, was born April 24, 1811. Our subject's paternal grandfather was born in Pennsylvania and was a soldier in the war of 1812. He affiliated with the republican party, as does our subject, who is one of the party leaders in his township.

ROBERT S. LOWRY, born in Wyandott county, Ohio, Sept. 30, 1847, is a son of Josiah S. and Jennie Lowry. His parents were natives of Pennsylvania. The father was a son of Josiah Lowry, a native of Scotland. The subject of this sketch is one of four children. His parents moved into Ohio from Pennsylvania. In Ohio the mother died, and subsequently the father married and by his second marriage became the father of five children. He died in 1892, aged seventy-three years. Robert S. Lowry began the battle of life for himself at the age of fifteen years. His first employment was that of "water-boy" with a railroad construction crew. Afterward he became a railroad brakeman, and in 1865 went west, where he aided in construction of the Union Pacific railroad. Then going to California he followed railroading in the far west for about three years. In 1869 Mr. Lowry returned to Chicago, and for fourteen years thereafter was employed in the capacity of conductor by the Pennsylvania railroad company, being a passenger conductor for thirteen years of the time. In 1883 he aided in the construction of the Vandalia branch from Logansport northward. After that he followed farming near Kewanee till 1885, in which year he embarked in the hardware business, in which he has since remained, residing at Kewanee. In 1873 Mr. Lowry and Alice Cushion were united in marriage. Unto the union there have been born Jennie, Alice and Robert S. Mr. Lowry has always been active as a democrat in politics. In 1890 he was elected trustee for Union township and served thereafter as such until August, 1895. He is a Knight Templar Mason, a progressive and successful business man, and a representative citizen.

JOHN B. McMAHAN, farmer and merchant at Bearss, Ind., is a native of Bartholomew county, this state, and was born Oct. 4, 1845; son of William and Louisa (Love) McMahan, natives of Kentucky. The father was born May 11, 1817, and died in Fulton county, Ind., June 21, 1895, and the mother was born in May, 1823, and also died in this county in September, 1871. The family came to Fulton county in 1847 and settled in Rochester township, southeast of Rochester. In early life the father learned the tailor's trade, at which he worked for some time. He was a prominent man in this county and had held the offices of township trustee and county commissioner. The major part of his life was devoted to farming and at which he was considered successful. The subject of this mention is the eldest of thirteen children, of whom six are living. He was

raised upon the farm and was educated at the public schools of this county. Later he began teaching during the winter season and worked upon the farm in summer. He continued teaching for fifteen terms. Twenty-four years ago he began farming for himself and in April, 1876, removed to his present farm, in the southwestern part of Rochester township, where he has seventy-three acres of fine land. In 1893 he opened a store in the neighborhood and was instrumental in the establishment of Bearss postoffice, and in May, 1893, was commissioned postmaster. This office has a daily mail from Rochester and is a great convenience to the people in that locality. The business venture of establishing a store at Bearss has been successful. In politics Mr. McMahan has always affiliated with the democratic party and in political affairs he has always manifested an active interest. Dec. 28, 1871, he was united in marriage to Miss Rebecca Goss, a daughter of George and Elizabeth Goss. To this marriage relation are these twelve children, viz.: Lorena, Daisy, Josephine, Sarah, Otto, Hugh, Thomas, William, Pat, John, Josie and an infant as yet unnamed. The mother of these children, a member of one of the old families of this county, was born in Liberty township March 14, 1853. The family is highly respected and Mr. McMahan is one of the honorable men of Fulton county and a member of the order of K. O. T. M.

HORACE C. MACKEY, of Rochester, is a son of one of Fulton county's first settlers. William Mackey, who lived for years just on the outskirts of Rochester, and was a prominent character, was born in Virginia, near Natural Bridge, Rockbridge county, being a descendant of one of the first white families to settle that county. His birth occurred about eighty-five years ago. In 1835 he rode on horseback from there to Fulton county and entered land in New Castle township. He did not settle on it, but returned to Virginia and remained five years longer. He cast his lot with this state in 1840 and took up his residence in Henry county. In 1849 he came to Fulton and bought a seventy-six-acre tract on the Michigan road of Riley Spencer. He was a prosperous farmer and a popular citizen. He was a strong union man and furnished two sons for the Union army. He married at Natural Bridge, Va., Rachel, a daughter of Joseph McClung. Rachel died in 1852, aged forty-one, leaving seven children. Joseph, deceased, was a prominent citizen of Wabash, Ind. Recruited One Hundred and First Indiana volunteers and was offered major's command, but declined to serve. Lizzie, deceased; Mrs. Mary Loomis, John C., died at Louisville, Ky., in Twenty-ninth Indiana regiment; Hester, wife of James Wilder; Horace C., born April 6, 1843; William, died 1882. Horace C. Mackey graduated from the Rochester public schools at thirteen years of age. Aug. 9, 1862, he enlisted in company D, Eighty-seventh Indiana volunteers, Capt Ward's and later Capt. Hughes' and lastly Capt. Elam's company. The regiment was mustered into

service at Indianapolis and was ordered to Louisville, Ky., to aid in checking Gen. Bragg's army. It struck the enemy at Perryville and followed him up to Trione, Tenn.; was in the Chickamauga fight; went with Sherman to the sea and on their return through the Carolinas to attend the grand review at Washington. During all his service Mr. Mackey was never absent from his regiment. He was mustered out of the service at Indianapolis July 23, 1865, sergeant of his company. On returning to civil pursuits Mr. Mackey engaged in farming, which of late years has given place to a miscellaneous and diversified vocation. Mr. Mackey sold his farm, the old Mackey homestead, to Dr. W. S. Shafer, in 1895, to be devoted to the use of the Rochester Normal university and on this tract the college building has been erected. To this enterprise Mr. Mackey lent not only his sympathy but of his substance and while the public are not acquainted with the extent of his donation the history of the consummation of the deal will reveal his connection with it. Mr. Mackey is the owner of several well improved properties in Rochester and laid out Mackey's addition to Rochester. In politics he is a republican and was once elected assessor, but a change in the law prevented his taking the office. April 6, 1868, Mr. Mackey married Lucy Dunlap, a daughter of James Dunlap, from Pennsylvania, who died here in 1855, one year after his advent to the state. He married Clara Stoughton, a cousin of Daniel Voorhees. Their children are: Rev. C. H. Dunlap, Philadelphia, Pa.; Alpheus, St. Louis, Mo.; Julia, wife of Michael Orr, Plymouth; Dr. W., Sedalia, Mo.; Lucy, and Mary, wife of Richard Van Deen, of this county. Mr. Mackey's children are: George M., twenty-six; Orrin S., twenty-two; Mary, twenty; Lottie, sixteen, and Colonel Gleason, six. The family are of the Presbyterian faith.

DANIEL MICKÉY is the owner of one of the fine farms of Fulton county, on which he has made his home since 1866. It comprises 140 acres of rich and arable land, which has been brought to its present advanced state of cultivation by drainage and the many improvements which go to make up the model farm of the nineteenth century. When it came into his possession it was heavily timbered, but his earnest labors have transformed it into one of the best country homes of Fulton county. Mr. Mickey was born in Richland county, Ohio, Oct. 28, 1824. His father, Isaac Mickey, was probably a native of Maryland, and near the beginning of the present century became a resident of Ohio. He served as a soldier in the war of 1812, under William Henry Harrison. For his second wife he married Susan Brinley and three of their children are living: Daniel, Hiram and Lucinda. The parents died in Kosciusko county, Ind., in 1849, and were buried the same day. Our subject received but limited opportunities for securing an education, his privileges being those afforded in the typical log school house of the frontier. During his youth he shared in the hardships and trials of pioneer life,

and from an early age has been dependent entirely upon his own resources, so that the success he has achieved is the merited reward of his own labors. After eighteen years' experience as a pioneer of Kosciusko county, he came to Fulton county, and has since been identified with its interests. On Sept. 17, 1850, Mr. Mickey was joined in wedlock with Catherine Etzweiler, daughter of Jacob Etzweiler. She died eighteen years ago, leaving six children: William, now deceased; Ella, wife of A. Coplen, of Walnut, Ind.; Emma, wife of Washington Benton, of New Castle township; Frank, of Fulton county; Harvey, of New Mexico, and Katie, wife of Charles Peterson, of Wayne township. On questions of state and national importance Mr. Mickey gives an unwavering support to the democracy. He has long been a member of the Christian church, and his life is in harmony with his profession.

ENOCH M. MOORE, the son of Lindley and Lydia (Vanmeter) Moore, was born in Fulton county, Ind., Sept. 10, 1851. The father, Lindley Moore, was born in Ross county, Ohio, Sept. 9, 1806. The mother, Lydia Moore, was born in Ross county, Ohio, in July, 1813. The father remained with his parents until the age of twenty-four, having in the meantime labored on the farm and also operated a saw mill. In 1830, at the age of twenty-four, he was married to Lydia Vanmeter. He began life as a farmer, which he followed through life. In 1846 he came to Wayne township, Fulton county, Ind., and entered some 200 acres of land. Some two years later (1848) he, together with his wife and family, migrated to Indiana in a wagon and settled on the land which he had entered. Here he remained until his death, being at that time the possessor of 480 acres of improved land. He died in 1877. The mother died just five days later. To this union were born the following children: Eliza Ann, Samuel, deceased; William, deceased; Joseph and Taylor, deceased; were twins; Elias, deceased; Martha, deceased; Lindley, deceased; James, John and Enoch M., were twins, and George. Enoch M., the subject of this sketch, remained at home with his parents until the age of twenty-five, having in the meantime received but a common school education. Jan. 18, 1881, he was married to Ollie Brown, the daughter of Salathiel and Elizabeth Brown. Enoch having received his share of his father's estate, eighty acres of land, settled down on the same as a farmer. He now resides on this tract of land. At present he owns 100 acres of valuable land. To his marriage have been born the following seven children: Merrill, deceased; Leola, Elsie, Lelia, Lottie, Earl, Monnie. He and his wife are members of the United Brethren church. He has always been a staunch republican.

GEORGE MOORE.—Oct. 1, 1840, is the time when the gentle man whose name introduces this review and who, for many years, has been familiarly known as "Uncle George Moore," came to Fulton county. He is a native of Logan county, Ohio, born May 22,

1819, and is a son of George and Mary (Moore) Moore. His father was born in Pennsylvania in 1789. He was a soldier of the war of 1812 and died in Fulton county, Ind., in 1855. The paternal grandfather of Mr. Moore was George Moore, a native of Massachusetts. He was a soldier in the war of the Revolution and participated in many of the important battles of that conflict, among which may be mentioned Bunker Hill, Stony Point and Brandywine. By occupation he was a weaver, which vocation he followed almost until the time of his demise at more than ninety-nine years of age, when death came to him in Jasper county, Ind., July 18, 1848. The mother of the subject of this biography was born in Ohio and died in Logan county, of that state, in 1823. He was raised in Logan county, Ohio, and attended school there. In early life he learned the wheelwright and chairmaker trades and these vocations he followed until about 1865. Upon coming to this county he first settled in the woods about six miles east of Rochester, where he lived for some eighteen months, when he removed to Rochester, and here lived until the spring of 1848, when he removed to his present place of residence, about three miles east of Rochester. Since 1865 Mr. Moore has been engaged in farming and now owns in this county about 455 acres of good land. As a farmer Mr. Moore has been successful. He was united in marriage in 1842 to Miss Eleanor Quigg, who died in Rochester soon after the marriage. In November, 1844, Mr. Moore married Miss Rebecca Clark, who was born in Lewis county, Va. To Mr. and Mrs. Moore are these three living children, viz.: Milton H., Charles and Frank. The right of political suffrage has been cast with the fortunes of the republican party since its birth, and Mr. Moore is a pronounced advocate of a protective tariff. He cast his first presidential vote for Henry Clay. In 1876 he was the nominee of his party in Fulton county for commissioner, and while he was not successful at the election he reduced the democratic majority of the county very perceptibly. He is a member of the Presbyterian church and one of the honorable old settlers and citizens of his adopted county.

WILLIAM D. MOORE, a farmer and reputable citizen of Aubeenaubbee township, was born in Burlington, Burlington county, N. J., on Jan. 8, 1830. His parents were Mark and Sarah Ann (Carty) Moore, and natives of New Jersey, from which state they removed in the year 1830, settling in Union township, Fulton county, where they lived until death called them away from the scenes of mortal toil. They had the following children: Rebecca Ann, deceased; William D.; Julia L., deceased; Lewis, deceased; Charles W.; Eliza, deceased; Justina, deceased. William D. was a lad of nine years when his parents settled in this county. With his parents he remained on the farm until twenty-one years of age, and then marrying Dec. 5, 1850, he began life for himself. The marriage was with Sarah Allen, a daughter of Obadiah and Sarah Allen, of Rochester

township, this county. The issue of this marriage was as follows: Evaline, Josephine, Mark Bird, Mary Jane, deceased; Obadiah C., Sarah Rebecca, deceased; William Andrew, deceased; Milo, deceased, and Laura deceased. The mother of these children died in 1876, and later the father married Mary A. Merideth, a daughter of Ambrose Merideth, Esq. To this marriage one child, Letty, was born, and then the mother died in 1878. The following year Mr. Moore married Mrs. Salome Sturgeon, nee Atkinson, a daughter of William and Sarah Atkinson. Unto the third marriage of Mr. Moore three children were born. Of the three children only Lee is living. At the time of Mr. Moore's first marriage his father gave him forty acres of land, on which his present residence is located. He has prospered as a farmer and now owns a good farm of 140 acres. Mr. Moore has served as trustee of his township three terms, being first elected in 1861. He has always been identified with the democratic party. Both he and his wife are active members of the Methodist Episcopal church, and enjoy the esteem of a wide acquaintance.

DR. J. M. MORRIS is the oldest practicing physician in years of continuous service in Fulton. He was born in Lancaster, Ohio, July 11, 1841, a son of Mitchell and Elizabeth (Hardesty) Morris. The father was born in Fairfield county, Ohio, in 1812, and there died in 1864. He was a successful farmer and stock-dealer and was active in politics, serving as treasurer of his county for eight years, and as coroner for four years. The children of the family are Rhoda O.; Mary, wife of Lewis Hunter, of Fairfield county, Ohio; J. M., of this review; Jennie, wife of J. J. Smith, of Wells county, Ind.; Sarah, wife of Morris Turner, of Jersey City, Ohio; Dr. George M., of Hadley, Ind.; and Emma, of Lancaster, Ohio. Dr. Morris, of this sketch, was reared as a farmer's son and acquired his literary education in the district and village schools. Prompted by patriotism, he enlisted in the Union service in 1861, at Lancaster, Ohio, as a member of company C, Eleventh Ohio infantry, which was sent to Camp Dennison, then on to St. Louis, Mo., and to Fort Laramie, Wyoming. The duty of the regiment was to protect the mail routes and other government interests on the frontier. The doctor entered the service as a private, but meritorious conduct won him promotion to the rank of sergeant major, and as such he was mustered out in Omaha, Neb., in April, 1865. Returning at once to Lancaster, he began the study of medicine the next year, with Dr. R. J. D. Peters. He was graduated from the medical college in Columbus, Ohio, and in order to further perfect himself in his chosen calling he has since attended lectures at the Rush medical college of Chicago, and the Keokuk medical college, of Keokuk, Iowa. He began practice in Wells county, Ind., and in 1871 located at Twelve Mile, in Cass county, where he did a successful business for ten years, since which time he has been accorded recognition as the leading

practitioner of Fulton. He is popular with his professional brethren and with the public and has been deservedly successful. On May 28, 1872, at Twelve Mile, was celebrated the marriage of Dr. Morris and Miss Sarah J. Sargent, who was born in Pennsylvania, in 1846. Their children are Fannie V., aged twenty-two; Charles H., twenty years of age; James A., a youth of fifteen; and May, a maiden of eleven summers. In politics the doctor is a democrat.

HENRY F. MOW.—This representative of one of the early families of Fulton county was born in Richland township, this county, about one-half mile from Richland Center, on June 5, 1847. The father of Mr. Mow was born in Ohio in 1827, and died in Fulton county, Ind., in 1869. He was a soldier of the late war and enlisted in 1861 in company F, Eighty-seventh Indiana volunteer infantry and served his country for a little over one year when, as first lieutenant, he was honorably discharged on account of contracted physical disability. The mother of Henry F. Mow was Eleanor (Holdstock) Mow, a native of New York state, who was born in 1828 and died in Fulton county, Ind., in 1874. The Mow family came to Fulton county in 1830, and the Holdstock family settled here two years previous, so that both of these families were among the early settlers of this county, and fully experienced the trials and difficulties of life in the woods. The subject of this review was raised in Richland township, and at its schools received his early education. At twenty years of age he began farming for himself and for three years lived upon what was known as the Shryock farm, and after the death of his father he farmed the old Mow homestead, which he and his brother, E. H. Mow, purchased after the death of the mother. On this farm he continued until 1884, when he bought his present farm, now consisting of 115 acres, and located on the Michigan road, three miles north of Rochester. This farm is well improved and about ninety acres are under cultivation. Mr. Mow was united in marriage Jan. 1, 1866, to Miss Phila Davis, who died in June, 1870, leaving two children, viz.: Finley E. and Aquilla Ray. March 15, 1881, Mr. Mow, for his second wife, married Miss Hannah W. Barnett, a native of Cass county, Ind., and a daughter of Henry and Nancy Barnett. The father of Mrs. Mow died in Marshall county, Ind., in 1801, and her mother died in Fulton county in 1804. To the union of Mr. and Mrs. (Barnett) Mow are these children, viz.: Lillie M., Maude L., Robert D. and Benjamin R. In political affairs Mr. Mow has always taken an active part in the interests of the republican party, and has devoted much time to promote its success. For twenty-seven years he has been a member of Rochester lodge, No. 47, I. O. O. F., and he and wife are members of the M. E. church and are among the prominent people of this county.

ENOCH MYERS, attorney at law, was born in Fulton county, Ind., Aug. 5, 1840. His father, John Myers, was born in Pennsylvania May 21, 1802. His mother, Elizabeth (Curtner) Myers, was

born near Knoxville, Tenn., June 17, 1813. She died in Fulton county, Ind., Feb. 4, 1887. The father died in this county Oct. 6, 1886. The parents were married in Carroll county, Ind., Feb. 14, 1832. Nine living children survive them. The name Myers was originally spelled Moyers. John Myers, Enoch's father, was a son of George Myers, a German, whose parents became settlers in Shelby county, Ohio, in 1804. He died in that county. In 1827 John Myers came from Ohio to Carroll county, Ind., where he resided for sixteen years, following farming. He then removed to Fulton county, and here lived till death ended his long, useful and successful life. His son Enoch toiled on the farm in his youth; attended first the country schools, then schools of Rochester and later Battle Ground collegiate institute. He taught his first school when eighteen years of age. He spent six or seven years in the school room as a teacher. He was made county superintendent of schools for Fulton county in 1875, and for six years thereafter held the office. He is said to have made a proficient official, and to have done much to raise the standard of the county schools. While in this office he took up the study of law, and was admitted to the bar in 1880. He has long since been recognized as a lawyer of no mean ability, and now stands in high repute in his profession. In 1876 Mahala E. Troutman, daughter of Capt. P. S. Troutman, of Kewanna, became Mr. Myers' wife. In politics he has been active as a democrat. Fraternally he is a member of the Knights of Pythias order, and of the Knights of the Maccabees.

JONAS MYERS.—This soldier of the Rebellion, ex-postmaster of Rochester, and honorable citizen, was born in Washington county, Pa., Feb. 20, 1820, and is a son of Jacob and Rosana (Long) Myers. The former was born in Washington county, Pa., in 1808, and died in Miami county, Ind., in 1883, while the latter was born in Maryland in 1807 and also died in Miami county in 1886. With his parents the subject of this review came to Indiana in 1839, and settled in Miami county, where he obtained a common school education and in 1848 came to Rochester and here learned the carpenter's trade, at which he continued for some years. Aug. 8, 1862, he enlisted in company F, Eighty-seventh I. V. I., and served his country faithfully until May 10, 1865, when, as second lieutenant, he was discharged at Washington. He participated in the battles of Perryville, Chickamauga, Peach Tree Creek, Chattanooga, Jonesboro, Atlanta, Resaca, Ringgold and many minor engagements. He was in the memorable march to the sea and in the grand review of war heroes at Washington. Since the war he has for many years been engaged in the planing mill business and while thus engaged in July, 1875, he lost his right forearm. Politically Mr. Myers is an uncompromising republican. April 24, 1890, he was appointed postmaster at Rochester and served until April 6, 1894. He, with the assistance

Miss _____ gave the people an efficient postal service. Mr. Myers has been three times married, and his present wife, Elizabeth H. Myers, nee Clayton, became his bride in 1867. Two children have been born to this union—Indianola F. and Stella P. Mr. Myers is a member of the I. O. O. F. and McClung post, No. 95, C. A. R.

THOMAS NELLANS, a leading and prosperous farmer of Highland township, was born in Coshocton county, Ohio, April 8, 1838. He grew up, was schooled sparingly and was married there and settling more than fifty years ago left the state of his birth and came to Ellison county, Ind. He settled in New Castle township on a new farm and remained a resident of that township till about 1881, when he sold the old homestead and bought his present farm. He came to this state poor and in search of a home. His is one of the desirable homes one would find in a day's journey and is a fitting place for its owner, who has spent the best years of his life in making it, to pass his last years. In 1830 Mr. Nellans was married to Maria, a daughter of F. Strohsnider. She was born in 1824 and is the mother of eleven children, eight of whom are living. Nancy, married David Bowd, of Schuylers county, Ind.; Mary F., wife of William Clary, of Marshall county; John N., George, Hayina, wife of W. Roberson, of Marshall county; Allie, wife of Thomas Nelson, Kosciusko county; Ann and Mack. Mr. Nellans' father, Patrick Nellans, was a millwright and born of Irish parents. He married Nellan, a Quaker, and died in Coshocton county, Ohio. His children were: Alexander, who married Stephen Merri-day; Thomas, Moses, deceased; James, Marshall county; Mark, deceased; Ezekiel, deceased; and Aps. Resister township. Mr. Nellans is a democrat and has no membership in any society.

NOAH A. W. NORRIS is one of the successful and representative farmers of New Castle township. He is descended from the Norrises, of colonial days, who settled in New England and whose descendants are to be found in every state and territory of the Union. Our subject's great-great-grandfather Norris was a Scotch immigrant. His name was Joseph and he was one of three brothers to seek a home in the western hemisphere. He removed his family to western Pennsylvania and was there a successful farmer and stock dealer. He was murdered on one of his trips home from market. This man's son William and his son Joseph were our subject's great-grandfather and grandfather, respectively. The latter was born in Pennsylvania and died in eastern Ohio. Our subject's father, John Norris, was born in Pennsylvania, was reared in Ohio, and when married, he entered a part of the town site of Postora, Ohio. He afterward moved near Findlay, Ohio, and resided there till his going to Texas, living there in Deaton county some twenty years ago. He was born in 1808. Was married to Sarah, daughter of George

Clark, who was born in Ireland, settled in Pennsylvania and there married Margaret Wilson, a daughter of John "Iron" Clark. Children were Joseph, deceased; Nancy, wife of A. J. Anderson of Denton, Texas; George W., Sumner county, Ark.; Marion, deceased; and Noah A. W. The last named, now born Dec. 9, 1837, and grew up on the farm, was sparingly educated in the common school, and perhaps most effectively by the fire drill. He was born in Hancock county, Ohio, but left there in 1864, joining a freighting train, crossed the plains to Virginia City, Mont., and served as a coach and wagonmaster. He returned to civilization in the fall of 1866, and the next year came to Fulton county. He engaged the first summer in clearing under lease of Thomas Morris. He was a partner with M. A. Cop, sawmilling the next season, and the next year he was a land owner and built engaged in clearing his forty acres, for which he had gone in debt \$700. He paid out and lived comfortably and bought forty acres more on the south. He built a house costing \$1,500 and grain house costing \$100. He bought twenty acres more and built a barn costing \$225. He has since bought fifteen acres more and now owns 117 acres, all of which he has secured as a result of his own industry and good management. In December, 1867, Mr. Morris married Elizabeth Anderson, sister of Robert Anderson, of the town ship. He died September 1891, leaving these children: Paul, William W., Viola, John P. and Mary E., all living in the town ship. Nov. 23, 1867, Mr. Morris married Emma Murphy, of Miami county. Mr. Morris is an active member of the Baptist church and ranks among leading citizens.

W. A. S. NORRIS, trustee of Liberty town ship, and one of the rising young farmers of Fulton county, was born in this county, Sept. 23, 1864, a son of Lemuel and Demilla (Jones) Morris. The father was born in Miami county, Ind., and his occupation was a farmer, but during the period of the civil war he put aside all business cares and went to the defence of the Union, as a soldier in the "Northwestern army." His death occurred in 1862, and his wife passed away in 1876. Their children are Jennie, wife of "Amos" Watkins of Middle town, Ind.; William, of Cass county; and W. A. S. All his life Mr. Norris has been connected with agricultural pursuits. His education was obtained in the district school, and in the Packer high school. At the age of fourteen he was left an orphan and since that time has made his way in the world unaided. He worked for others uninterruptedly until 1885. On attaining his majority he began teaching school in the winter months, following that profession for four years. His first wages were invested in sheep and cattle in a bad land, and the outcome of both was successful. In 1890 he began farming on his own account northeast of Fulton and is today the owner of three farms aggregating 300 acres, besides valuable personal property, all of which has been acquired through his own exertions and capable management. He is a selected township trustee.

tee on the republican ticket in November, 1894, and Aug. 5, 1895, assumed the duties of the office. Mr. Norris was married Feb. 9, 1887, to Celia M. Hedges, daughter of Allen Hedges, a native of New York, who came to Indiana before the war, and settled in Cass county, where Mrs. Norris was born Dec. 19, 1862. Her father died in 1886, at the age of fifty-four, his wife in 1891, aged fifty-five years. They had two children, the son being Almon S., of Chicago. Mr. and Mrs. Norris have four children: Elzie, aged eight; Elmer, aged six; Hugh, three years of age, and Verne, a baby of one year.

B. F. OVERMYER, M. D., one of the prominent physicians and citizens of Fulton county, has resided in this county since the spring of 1882. April 1 of that year he opened an office at Leiter's Ford, where he has since conducted an active and remunerative practice in his profession. Dr. Overmyer was born in Lindsey, Sandusky county, Ohio, March 27, 1856. His parents were William and Elizabeth (Eversole) Overmyer. His father, a native of Union county, Pa., was a son of John George Overmyer, who was of German origin. Dr. Overmyer's mother was a native of Virginia. The doctor was reared to farming, but after gaining a common school education, began teaching at the age of nineteen years. For two years he taught school in Michigan and then for three years in Ohio. Meanwhile he took up the study of medicine. March 23, 1882, he graduated from the Starling medical college, of Columbus, Ohio, and immediately located at Leiter's Ford. In a short time after locating there he became a partner of his father-in-law, in general merchandising. Five years later his father-in-law died, and for eight years thereafter the doctor conducted the business alone, up to the fall of 1895, when his nephew became a partner in the business. The doctor was married Dec. 28, 1881, to Miss Nellie Storm, daughter of Milton Storm, Esq. He is a firm and active worker in the ranks of the republican party, and belongs to the Independent Order of Odd Fellows, belonging to the Camp Militant of the order.

ARTHUR E. PENDLETON.—Mr. Pendleton, trustee of Rochester township, Fulton county, Ind., is a native of Madison county, Ind., born July 28, 1830. He is a son of John B. and Maria (Edney) Pendleton, both natives of North Carolina, who in 1823 came to the Hoosier state and settled in Wayne county, where they resided until 1830, when they removed to Madison county, where the father died in 1839, and the mother at the ripe old age of eighty-four years. The subject of this sketch resided in Madison county until about thirty-five years of age and then removed to Henry county, where he lived for ten years and in the spring of 1875 he came to Fulton county and settled in Richland township, where the residence was continued for nine years. He then moved to Rochester township and for the last five years he has been a resident of the city of Rochester. The life of Mr. Pendleton has been that of a farmer and in politics he has always been an earnest supporter of the repub-



GEORGE PERSCHBACHER.

lean party. In 1883-84 he was township trustee of Richland township and in 1894 he was elected to the same position in Rochester township. In township affairs his policy is to enforce economy wherever it is possible. Mr. Pendleton was united in marriage in 1853 to Miss Mary A. Richwine, who was born in Wayne county, Ind., and died in Fulton county, Ind., in 1878. Born of this union were nine children, the following six of whom are living: Dr. C. B. Pendleton, of Mechanicsburg, Henry county, Ind.; Clinton V., Charles A., a merchant of Richland township, this county; Nannie J., now Mrs. McClure, who resides in California; Warren D., and Franklin O. Mr. Pendleton is a member of the Masonic fraternity and one of the highly respected citizens of this county.

GEORGE PERSCHBACHER is a self-made man, who began life empty-handed, but by marked business ability, industry, energy and perseverance has worked his way steadily upward to a position of affluence. He was born near Baltimore, Md., July 7, 1833. His parents, George and Anna D. (Grayer) Perschbacher, were natives of Hessen Darmstadt, the father born Jan. 18, 1794, and the mother July 1, 1802. They were married April 23, 1825, and on April 19, 1833, sailed for America. After a year spent near Baltimore, they located in York county, Pa., and in 1839 became residents of Wayne county, Ind., whence in 1845 they came to Fulton county. The father bought a tract of land in the forest near Tiosa, where he developed an excellent farm, reared his family, and spent his remaining days. He died March 23, 1866, and his wife April 24, 1881. George Perschbacher is the fourth of their nine children. He was reared on the frontier farm, and in early life fitted himself for teaching, which profession he ably followed for a number of years. His earnings went toward the purchase of a home, and then to its improvement. Abandoning school teaching, he engaged in farming and in the handling of grain and stock, and so well have his business interests been managed that he is to-day the owner of 540 acres of valuable land in Fulton county, together with extensive commercial interests in Tiosa, his investments there amounting to \$10,000. This includes the ownership of the elevator and leading stores of the village. On April 2, 1854, Mr. Perschbacher married Jane Wright. Her father, James Wright, was born in Maryland, July 26, 1813, and married Margaret, daughter of William Reid, a native of Virginia. Mrs. Perschbacher was the first white child born in New Castle township, Fulton county. She died in March, 1887, leaving the following children: Ellen, wife of E. S. Bair, of Tiosa; Anna, wife of George Kiler, who lives on the Riverside farm; Nora B., wife of Obadiah Haimbaugh; Alma J., wife of C. D. Shobe, of Tiosa; Miles W., who operates the old homestead; and Hattie E. In March, 1891, Mr. Perschbacher wedded Mrs. Martha Plank, widow of Dr. A. K. Plank, of Rochester. In the fall of the same year he moved his family to Rochester, where he is now living retired, save for the

superintendence of his investments. In 1872 he was elected on the democratic ticket as county assessor and land appraiser, filling the position with satisfaction to all. He was one of the promoters of the Agricultural and Mechanical society of Fulton county, and for many years has been a consistent Christian, a faithful member of the Evangelical Lutheran church.

OLIVER C. POLLEY was born in New London county, Conn., March 17, 1821. His father, Oliver C. Polley, Sr., was born in the same county and state Jan. 8, 1794. He married Abigail Payne, Nov. 30, 1815. She was a native of the same state and was born July 2, 1790, and died June 10, 1826. They were both of English descent. On Feb. 27, 1828, he was married to Lara Abell. She was born in Lisbon county, Conn., Sept. 28, 1808, and died April 15, 1809. Soon after his marriage he emigrated west and settled in Ohio in 1830, where he died Sept. 6, 1842. The subject of this sketch came from his native state and settled with his parents in Huron county, Ohio, when he was about eight years of age. He received a common school education, grew to manhood, and was married Nov. 1, 1846, to Eliza M. Mehrling, the daughter of Peter and Mary Mehrling, natives of Pennsylvania. The father was born Dec. 2, 1801, and the mother May 31, 1804. They came to Ohio in 1832, and then to Indiana in 1849, where he died Jan. 14, 1874. Mr. and Mrs. Polley have had five children, only one of whom is now living. Their names are: Mary E., Oliver P., Andrew, an infant, and George W. The last named is the only living one. George W. has the management of his father's farm, and is a worthy young man. Mr. Polley came to Indiana in 1849 and settled in Fulton county, where he bought land, then in the heavily wooded district along the river. By hard and persistent labor he converted it into a highly cultivated tract of land. He and his wife are members of the Methodist Episcopal church. Mr. Polley has lived a long and useful life, and much credit is due him. He came to the county in an early day, and he has given much aid to the development of the country. He has always been progressive and has stood as a firm friend of both church and education. In his declining years his blessings are many. Surrounded with a good wife, a faithful son, many friends and a good home, he enjoys the fruits of an exemplary life.

PHILIP RADER is a retired farmer and pioneer of Henry township, who has devoted the best energies of his life to the improvement of the lands of Fulton county, transforming the wild tracts into rich fields, whose productiveness adds materially to the prosperity of the county. He came to Indiana from Ohio, his native state, his birth having occurred in Montgomery county, July 4, 1824. His father, Philip Rader, who was born in Wythe county, Va., moved to Ohio in an early day. He was of German descent and married Miss Cress for his first wife and after her death wedded Elizabeth Siddon, of English lineage. With an ax upon his shoulder, Philip Rader,



PHILIP RADER.



MRS. PHILIP RADER.

of this sketch, left home to carve out his own fortune, and by working in this way he started in life. After working for one year for his father for \$100, he was married Dec. 18, 1846, to Margaret Stradley, and with his bride and his small capital began housekeeping a mile east of Akron on a forty-acre farm which he had purchased. Five years later he sold this place with the intention of removing to Illinois, but circumstances prevented and he purchased his father's farm, which in 1863 he exchanged for 170 acres of land in Henry township, two miles east of the village. There he profitably carried on farming until 1886, when with the handsome competence acquired through his own labors he removed to Akron, where he has since lived retired. Mrs. Rader, who has been his faithful helpmeet for many years, was born in Delaware and her father, Caleb Stradley, was among the pioneers who opened up this locality to civilization. He was the first justice of the peace of Henry township, and for several years did his judicial business in his log cabin, two and one-half miles southwest of where Akron now stands. Mr. and Mrs. Rader are the parents of the following named children: W. N., of Henry township; Sarah E., wife of Joseph Nelson, of Disco; Schuyler, of Henry township; Albert W., of Huntington, Ind.; and Clara, wife of William Morrett, of Henry township. Deeply interested in America, Mr. Rader has traveled quite extensively over this country, thus gaining a knowledge of his native land that could not be acquired from history. Accompanied by his wife, he visited the Centennial exposition in 1876, returning by way of the Atlantic states and visiting New York, Niagara and other points of interest. Some years later they took a six months' trip through the west, at length reaching San Diego, Cal., and returning by way of the Central Pacific route. They thus visited some twenty-six states and territories, and viewed the grandeur of the Rocky mountains and other magnificent scenery of the west. After a life well spent in fruitful toil they are now enjoying rest from labor in their pleasant home in Akron, and Mrs. Rader is now the oldest living resident of Henry township. Her brother, Luther Stradley, was the first white child born in the township.

ALONZO L. RANNELLS, a well known business man of Rochester, and one of the best hotel men that ever opened a register in Fulton county, was born in this city Feb. 10, 1851. He has resided here all his life and was educated at Urbana, Ohio, Swedenborgian college, and at Richmond, Ind., later received his training in business at this point. His training for the hotel business began when thirteen years old, when his father opened the Central house in 1864. In course of time he was taken into the business as a partner, the firm being R. M. Rannells & Son. Some time after his father's death, April 21, 1886, Mr. Rannells retired from this old hostelry, which is yet a part of the family estate, and when the Arlington was completed Mr. Rannells in company with Charles D. Sissen

opened it and conducted it two years. Since then Mr. Rannells has devoted himself to his farming and other important interests. His farm lands are situated in Rochester and Henry townships. Mr. Rannells was married in Rochester June 13, 1876, to Emma L., daughter of Daniel Sterner, who came originally from Pennsylvania. Mrs. Rannells was born at Bristol, Ind., in 1855. Our subject's father, R. N. Rannells, was born in Crawford county, Ohio, March 21, 1827. He came to Fulton county with his parents in 1838. Four years later his father engaged in merchandising here, and took his son in as a partner. This business was conducted for sixteen years successfully, but the in-door confinement was proving disastrous to the health of the son and he retired and undertook farming. When the Eighty-seventh regiment was raised and equipped for service for the Union, Mr. Rannells was appointed a quartermaster by Gov. Morton. He served with his regiment till failing health forced him to resign, leaving behind him a most creditable record as a faithful servant and efficient officer. He returned home in 1864 and engaged in the hotel business, opening the Central house, conducting it to his death. In 1848 he was married to Elizabeth Spencer, born in Ohio in 1830. Their children are: W. S., Alonzo L. and Lycurgus E., deceased. Our subject's grandfather William Rannells, was born in Virginia, and there married Susan Rannells. He was a member of the state legislature from Fulton county two terms and died in Rochester in 1850. A. L. Rannells is a member of the Independent Order of Odd Fellows, of the order of Knights of Pythias, Red Men, and National Union.

WILLIAM W. RANNELLS, a native of Adams county, Ohio, was born July 12, 1852, and is a son of James R. Rannells, who was born in Virginia in 1836. He is the only survivor of six brothers and now resides in Rochester. The mother of William W. was Orpha J. Rannells, whose maiden name was Fenton, a descendant of the famous Fenton family of Kentucky. She was born in Adams county, Ohio, and died in Rochester, Ind., in 1864. As early as 1838 the Rannells family became known in northern Indiana by the coming of two brothers, who first settled near Leesburg, where the grandfather of our subject died. The paternal grandmother of Mr. Rannells kept an early day tavern in Rochester. Mr. Rannells came to Rochester in 1862. He obtained a common school education and at seventeen years of age he began learning the blacksmith trade in the shop of J. W. Rannells, who was for forty years a blacksmith. For quite a number of years he has been engaged in business for himself. He also has a fine little farm, upon which he with his family reside just beyond the corporate limits of Rochester. In 1875 he was united in marriage to Miss Ellen J. Osborn, who was born in Fulton county, Feb. 27, 1858. To this relation is one child, viz.: Clarence J., born in this county Feb. 10, 1876. For quite a number of years Mr. Rannells

has been associated with the instrumental musical interests of Rochester. He is a member of Rochester lodge, No. 47, I. O. O. F. and is known as an honorable man and respected citizen of Fulton county.

FRANK M. REID was born near Logansport, in Cass county, Ind., May 12, 1842, and is a son of William and Amanda Reid. The former was born in Virginia and died in Cass county, Ind., in 1862, and the latter was born in Ohio and died in Fulton county, Ind., in 1858. The mother's maiden name was Elam and her father was one of the first settlers and millers of Fulton county. For some time, in an early day, he operated a mill at the outlet of Manatawn lake, where he ground corn for the Indians. The subject of this mention received a country school education, and then began learning the carpenter's trade. He had worked but one year (1860) when the war began and in 1861 he enlisted in company K, Forty-sixth Indiana volunteer infantry and served until June 30, 1865, when he was honorably discharged at Louisville, Ky. He was in many important battles and was a faithful and true soldier. The conflict over he again engaged in the carpenter's business, in which he has continued nearly all the time since 1865. Among the many buildings he has erected in Rochester, may be mentioned the Arlington hotel block, the Deniston building. He also helped to build the South school building and the residence of L. M. Brackett. The marriage of Mr. Reid occurred in 1862 to Miss Clarissa Reed, of Rochester, Ind. To this union are these two children: Leslie and Nellie. In politics he is an earnest supporter of the republican party. For five years Mr. Reid served as marshal of the city of Rochester. He is a member of McClung post, No. 95, G. A. R., and is also a member of the orders K. of H. and I. O. M. Mr. Reid has made his own way in life and is recognized as one of the leading carpenters, contractors and honorable business men of Rochester, of which city he has been a resident for many years.

GEORGE RENTSCHLER, of Liberty township, an industrious, ambitious and successful young farmer, was born in Kings county, N. Y., Oct. 7, 1864. The following year his father brought his family to Peru, Ind., and in that locality young George was reared, educated and learned the moulder's trade. He was not content to remain a tradesman and when he had concluded his first year as a moulder he indicated to his father his desire to engage in farming. The necessary arrangements were made and our subject launched out on his new venture on the F. Reese farm, containing 183 acres, which he has since purchased. He has cleared sixty acres, put in 2,000 rods of ditch and otherwise improved his premises. Mr. Rentschler is a son of G. A. Rentschler, a foundryman of Hamilton, Ohio, but formerly proprietor of the Ohio iron works at Peru, Ind. He was born in Germany, came to the United States single and was married in New Jersey to Catherine Graff, who died in 1879, leaving

George and Henry, a machinist at Hamilton, Ohio. Nov. 15, 1884, George Rentschler married Lettie Ludwig, born in Fulton county. She is a daughter of J. J. Ludwig, of German parents, and reared in Miami county, Ind. Mr. and Mrs. Rentschler are the parents of Henry, aged ten; Andrew, aged nine; George, aged seven; and Robert, aged one. Mr. Rentschler is a K. O. T. M.

WILLIAM P. RIED, one of the native born pioneers of Fulton county, Ind., dates his birth in Rochester township June 11, 1839, and is a son of Daniel and Charity Ried, whose maiden name was Miller. The father of Mr. Ried was born in Preble county, Ohio, April 11, 1816, and died in Fulton county, Ind., Feb. 3, 1849; while the mother was born in Pennsylvania, Nov. 25, 1816, and died in this county Dec. 5, 1887. As early as 1837 the father of William P. entered 150 acres of land three miles southwest of Rochester and since its passing from the government has always been in the hands of the Ried family, and Mr. Ried has the first tax receipt for this land, which is in the following language: "Received of Daniel Ried one dollar and sixty-six cents, it being in full of his state and county tax for the year 1838. Robert Martin, Collector F. C." The subject of this biography grew to manhood upon the home land and was a pupil at the neighborhood school. The early death of the father compelled young Ried to help the mother earn a living for her family and at fourteen years of age with a yoke of oxen he put out and cultivated his first crop of corn. Mr. Ried has given the best years of his busy life to agricultural pursuits and now owns 170 acres of well improved land. In 1803 he rented his farm and wishing to avoid so much hard work bought a pleasant home about one mile from Rochester and here he now resides. He was united in marriage Dec. 29, 1887, to Miss Salina Tilton, who was born in Stark county, Ohio, Jan. 27, 1848. Mrs. Ried is a daughter of John and Sarah (McDowell) Tilton. The former was born April 7, 1811, and the latter Feb. 23, 1809. They were highly respected citizens and many years ago came to Cass county, Ind., where they died, the mother in 1876 and the father in 1877. In politics Mr. Ried is a democrat. He is one of the cautious, conservative men of this county, and the success he has attained has come through his own efforts. Mrs. Ried is a member of the Presbyterian church and they are among the highly respected citizens of this county.

CYRUS H. ROBBINS, an ex-commisisoner of Fulton county and one of the pioneers, was born in Highland county, Ohio, June 29, 1828, and is a son of Joseph and Mary (Horn) Robbins, both natives of Ohio. The father of Mr. Robbins died in Fulton county, Ind., in 1851 and his mother also died in this county, in 1850. In a very early day the family settled in Henry county, Ind., and in 1836, after a residence of six years in Henry county, came to Fulton county. The subject of this review first attended the subscription schools and later the public schools. He was raised upon the farm



C. H. ROBBINS.

and at twenty-one years of age came to Rochester and for ten years was engaged in general merchandising, and during a portion of that time was postmaster at Rochester. In 1860 he removed to his present place of residence, two and one-half miles southwest of Rochester. He now owns about 300 acres of well improved land in Rochester township. The political convictions of Mr. Robbins have always been in the interests of the democratic party and for four years he was trustee of Rochester township. In 1888 he was elected to the board of commissioners of this county, and served the county faithfully and economically for the term for which he was elected. Mr. Robbins was one of the promoters of the Fulton County Agricultural and Mechanical society, of which he was president for four years. He was one of the organizers and a charter member of the Fulton county horse protective company. He was united in marriage in 1857 to Miss Sarah C. Small, a daughter of David and Leah (Smock) Small, natives of Kentucky. Mrs. Robbins was born in Marion county, Ind., Nov. 28, 1835. Mr. and Mrs. Robbins have nine children, viz.: Alfred D., Clio May, Charles E., Dora, Minnie, William B., June Gertrude, Roy and Della. He is a member of the Masonic fraternity and he and wife are members of the M. E. church. He is one of the enterprising farmers and stock-raisers of Fulton county, a man of unquestioned honor, and practical judgment.

ALEXANDER RUH.—The gentleman whose name introduces this review, is one of the younger business men of Rochester and the success he has attained has come to him entirely through his own efforts. He was born in Peru, Miami county, Ind., in 1859, and is a son of Frederick and Barbara Ruh, both natives of Germany, who were united in marriage upon their ocean voyage to the United States. The father died at Peru in the sixty-third year of his age, and the mother at the same place at forty-five years of age. Mr. Ruh attended the public schools of his native town until thirteen years old, when he began learning the drug business, continuing in Peru until 1888, when he came to Rochester and engaged in the drug business for himself. It is conceded that Mr. Ruh is one of the most careful druggists in this part of Indiana, and that his store is one of the largest and best in Rochester. He was united in marriage in 1880 to Miss Ida I. Sherling, of Asbury Park, N. J. To this union are these four children: Harold F., Frederick D., Lucy B. and Donald O. In politics Mr. Ruh is a democrat. He is a member of Fredonia lodge, No. 122, K. of P., in which he has always taken an active part to promote the best interests and success of the lodge. He is recognized as one of the leading business men of his adopted city.

JOHN P. RUSSELL, trustee of Union township, Fulton county, Ind., was born at Newport, Ills., Aug. 19, 1850. His parents were Capt. W. A. J. and Mary C. (Pegram) Russell. The father was born near St. Louis, Mo., and was a son of John and

Laura Ann (Spencer) Russell. John Russell, our subject's paternal grandfather, was a native of Vermont, and was of an old New England family of English descent. He was graduated from Middlebury college as B. A. in 1817, and is known as a man of high culture and learning. For years he was a professor and taught in some of the very best academies and colleges. When a young man he came west, and at White Water, Ind., married the woman of his choice in 1818. After teaching at St. Louis for several years he located at Bluffdale, Ill., where his death occurred. During his latter days he wrote for leading magazines and gained an enviable reputation as a writer. He was the author of "The Venomous Worm," a selection in McGuffey's school reader. The marriage of our subject's parents was consummated in Illinois. His mother was born in Petersburg, Va. She was a daughter of John Pegram, a Virginian of English descent. He was of one of the best families of Virginia. At an early date he settled in Illinois, where his death occurred. The father of our subject enlisted as a captain in company G, Tenth Missouri infantry, and was killed at the battle of Chattanooga. His widow lived many years afterward, dying at Hamilton, Ill., in 1890. John P. Russell is one of a family of six children, two sons and four daughters. He gained a common school education at Hamilton Ill., where he was reared. He began the battle of life for himself at the age of fifteen years. Beside working on the farm, he also clerked in a store at Hamilton for six years. In 1873 he came to Indiana and located at Rockville. He accepted employment with the Vandalia railroad company, in the bridge and building department. Thus he was employed for twenty years. In 1879 he married and located at Crawfordsville, where he resided till 1884, when he removed to Kewanna, where he now resides. He wedded Miss Lucy J. Norcross, a daughter of Thomas J. and Mary Norcross, of Judson, Ind. Mr. and Mrs. Russell have had four children. Their eldest, Mary Vesta, died in infancy. Their living children are Fred, Carl and Elvin. The family are members of the M. E. church. Mr. Russell began life as a poor orphan boy. Hard work has been his lot. By means of industry and frugality he has grown prosperous. He owns his own home and forty acres of land, a part of which lies within the limits of Kewanna. He has always been a republican in politics. In 1894 he was elected trustee for Union township, and is the present incumbent of that office.

AUSTIN B. SARGENT, of Liberty township, was born in Washington county, Pa., Feb. 10, 1843. He is a farmer's son and was schooled in the country school manner. His father, John H. Sargent, died in June, 1858, and the next year the widow and children came to Indiana, landing at Logansport in September. They located seven miles west on a farm and Austin was one of the chief props of the home till the war broke out, when he enlisted in company D, Ninth Indiana, three months men, April 17, 1861, being the

third man to enlist; was mustered in at Laporte, went to Kentucky and when his time expired re-enlisted at Bridgeport, Ala., as first sergeant, and was soon promoted to first lieutenant. His second command was company E, Twenty-ninth Indiana volunteer infantry; was color bearer of his regiment; was at Pittsburg landing, Corinth, Iuka and Stone river, where he was shot through the left thigh and was in the hospital until after the engagements around Chattanooga. He was with his company again at Dalton, Ga. He resigned his commission Dec. 27, 1864, and came home, but enlisted at once as a private in the One Hundred and Fifty-fifth volunteers and was near Dover, Del., when the war closed. His service covered a period of four years and three months. Mr. Sargent returned to the farm in Cass county and remained till his advent to Fulton county. He owns 120 acres one and one-half miles southwest of Fulton. Dec. 28, 1868 Mr. Sargent married Falley A., daughter of Elliott Baker, who came from near Carbondale, Pa. He was born in Susquehanna county, Pa., was a farmer and a major in the Pennsylvania militia during old training days. Our subject's paternal grandfather was John Sargent, born in Ireland, and his mother was Sarah, daughter of Joseph Baker. Her children are: Leander B., deceased; Austin B., Oliver B. and Sarah, wife of Dr. J. M. Morris, of Fulton. Mr. and Mrs. Sargent are the parents of Asa E., Oliver E., Sarah L., a teacher in Fulton county, and Anna F. Mr. Sargent is a radical protectionist, and pins his faith to the republican party.

J. R. SEVERNS, one of the representative farmers of New Castle township, is numbered among those worthy citizens that Ohio has furnished to Fulton county. His birth occurred in Coshocton county, Oct. 3, 1836, and he is a representative of one of the pioneer families of Allegheny county, Pennsylvania, where his grandfather, Joseph Severns, located at an early day, there spending the remainder of his life, his death occurring in 1857, when he was nearly ninety years of age. Samuel Severns, father of our subject, was born near Pittsburg, Pa., in October, 1796, and served in the American army in the war of 1812. He was a successful farmer and became quite wealthy, owning considerable property at his death, which occurred Jan. 17, 1885, when in his eighty-ninth year. He married Jesdenia, daughter of Robert Darling, a native of Virginia. They had thirteen children, the living being Isaac, of Knox county, Ohio; Cordelia, widow of William Fitzgerald, of Coshocton county; Sarah, widow of Isaac Copen, of Fulton county; Sabina, widow of Isaac Hatabaugh, of Greene county, Ind.; Rebecca, widow of Abram Holt, of Daviess county Ind.; J. R.; Mahala, Wife of Isaac Conner, of Sullivan county, Ind. and Ellen, wife of Leander Richards, of Coshocton county. J. R. Severns received only meagre educational privileges, but his training at farm labor was not limited, and he assisted his father until twenty-one years of age, when he assumed the

management of the old homestead, retaining it for four years. In 1863, he came to Fulton county, Ind., and invested his capital of \$400 in forty acres of his present farm. On this place was a small cabin, and a few acres had been cleared. With characteristic energy he began its development and to-day is the owner of 140 acres of rich land, of which 100 acres are highly cultivated, while the place is well drained and improved with a good residence and other substantial buildings that indicate the enterprise and progressive spirit of the owner. On the 22d of March, 1860, was consummated the marriage of Mr. Severn and Margaret M. Meredith, daughter of Isaac and Mary (Groves) Meredith. He was a native of Coshocton county, Ohio, came to Fulton county, in 1864, and here died in 1895. Mr. and Mrs. Severns have seven children—Justenia, wife of Frank C. Mickey; Mary E., wife of Alonzo Long; Frank M., of Cass county, Neb.; Oliver; Leora, wife of Herbert Shobe; Mahala and Wellington, at home. Mr. Severns has always given his political support to the democracy, and his religious allegiance to the Baptist church.

WINFIELD S. SHAFFER, M. D.—Prominent both as a physician and public-spirited citizen, the subject of this personal mention, Dr. Shafer, is appropriately classed among men of progress, and few, if any, have a larger circle of acquaintances in the county than he. In Knox county, Ohio, he was born, Oct. 12, 1852. His parents, now well advanced in years, are David and Sarah Shafer, who are among the oldest and best known citizens of Marshall county, Ind. The father was born in Adams county, Ohio, in the year 1822. His father was Abram Shafer, born in Adams county, Pa. At an early day Abram Shafer's father immigrated to America and settled in Pennsylvania. Dr. Shafer's paternal grandfather was a soldier in the war of 1812. The Shafer homestead in Pennsylvania forms a part of the battle grounds of the memorable battle of Gettysburg, and is still owned by descendants of the family. Dr. Shafer's mother's maiden name was Sarah Ridgeway. She was born in Maryland, near Alexandria, in the year 1824, and died in Marshall county, Ind., May 2, 1896. Her parents were of Scotch origin. Her father was Jonathan Ridgeway and her mother was a Moore. Soon after the marriage of David and Sarah Shafer, over half a century ago, they removed to Ohio, where they resided until 1865, in which year they came to Indiana and settled in Marshall county. They reared nine children, bringing them up on the farm. Hence, the youth of Dr. Shafer was spent on the farm. He gained a common school education of such thoroughness that he commenced teaching at the age of nineteen and taught nine consecutive terms. His literary education was completed by a one year's term in the northern Indiana normal school at Valparaiso. During the period of his school teaching Dr. Shafer read medicine under the guidance of Dr. Allen Moore, of Marshall county; then operated a drug store for two

years; then took a course in Rush medical college, Chicago, in 1877-78. In 1879 he located at Big Foot, Ind., and entered into the practice of his profession. Four years later he located in Rochester, where his professional career has been an uninterrupted rise to the zenith of medical prominence in this section of the state. Soon after locating in Rochester he abandoned the practice long enough to graduate from the Eclectic medical institute of Cincinnati, the date of graduation being June 1, 1886. In 1887 he took a post graduate course in the Bennett medical college at Chicago. Thus, together with a thorough preparation for his profession by attending the best of medical colleges, and an active practice of medicine of some fifteen or sixteen years, he has well mastered the subject of medicine and gained an enviable reputation. His high standing as a physician was recently attested by his election to the presidency of the Indiana State Medical association. He is also a member of the Northern Indiana Medical association. He is a member of the Independent Order of Odd Fellows and the order of the Tribe of Ben Hur. While he is a firm republican in politics, he has never sought political preferment. The doctor is an enthusiastic devotee of music and education, having been a member of the Rochester school board and a founder of the Rochester normal university, being president of the controlling board of trustees. In 1878 Sarah Wiltfong, of Marshall county, became his wife. They have an interesting family of three children, namely, Howard, Effie and Robert. The doctor and his wife are prominent in social circles, and devote much time to the intellectual training of their children and themselves. They are members of the university association class of Rochester, which has for its object the study of universal history. The doctor is unostentatious and unassuming, and is held in high esteem by those who know him.

JAMES RANDOLPH SHELTON, the present clerk of the circuit court of Fulton county, is a native of this county, having been born on a farm in Liberty township, Nov. 14, 1844. Mr. Shelton's father, Wilson Shelton, was a Virginian by birth. With his parents he came to Indiana in an early day, settling in Hendricks county, where he married Polly Beattie, whose parents were also early settlers of the same county, having removed to the county from Virginia, in which state their daughter was born. Unto Wilson Shelton and wife were born the following children: Thomas H., a farmer of Fulton county; Isaac, killed by Indians in Oregon; Rhoda Ann, deceased; Lucy A., widow of the late David C. Oliver, of Fulton county; James R., the subject of this sketch, and Amanda, who died young. The parents settled in Fulton county about 1840. The father was a farmer by occupation. In the year 1852 he and his son Isaac started west, bound for the gold fields of California. The father sickened and died on the great plains. The son pressing on and going to Oregon met his death there, as above mentioned. In

the year 1857 our subject's mother passed away in death. James was brought up on the farm. His first schooling was obtained in the country schools; then he attended the Rochester schools and later Hartsville college. At the age of twenty-five years he began teaching in the country schools. After teaching several years, Mr. Shelton spent three years in the elevator business, then resumed teaching, also taking up farming. For the last several years he has devoted his whole time to farming and to trading in live stock. Mr. Shelton has been successful as a farmer and business man. He has always been progressive and has now the esteem of a wide acquaintance. He has always been a republican in politics. In 1894 his party nominated him for clerk of the circuit court and in the fall of that year he was elected to the office by 104 majority. In 1872 Mr. Shelton wedded Miss Margaret A. Martin, of Fulton county. Two children, Morris Claude and Fatima Beatrice, have been born unto the marriage.

JOHN SHETTERLY, proprietor of the Rochester saw mill, was born in Pennsylvania, Jan. 3, 1849. In 1856 his father, Benjamin Shetterly, emigrated to Berrien county, Michigan, and there John was reared on a farm and educated in the schools of his district. Benjamin Shetterly died in 1874, sixty-six years old. He was a great-grandson of a Switzerland farmer, who came to America in colonial days and learned the lessons of patriotism in the keystone of the colonies. Benjamin Shetterly married Catherine Frain, who bore him seven children, of which number John is the fifth; four others are living in and adjoining Berrien county, Mich.; Mrs. Susan Rough, St. Joseph county, Ind.; Benjamin, George and Sarah Trusler, of Berrien county. John Shetterly was educated limitedly. His youth was occupied with such labors as are required by farmers in a new and wild country of their strong and industrious boys. At twenty he engaged in farming for himself and continued it for two years. He embarked in lumbering at Pine Grove for four years, and sawed out 160 acres. He farmed the next five years, then bought a mill at New Troy and operated it till 1885, when he went to Kansas and embarked in the retail lumber and furniture business. The west was settling up rapidly then and there was an unparalleled demand for pine. He had yards at Oakley, Colby, Wallace, Sharon Springs, Eustace, Tribune and Leoti. Mr. Shetterly was sent to the Kansas legislature as a democrat from Wallace county, and got a bill through organizing his county. He was chairman of the committee on enrolled bills and acquitted himself with credit in this capacity. He returned to Michigan in 1888 and ran a furniture factory at Buchanan two years. His next venture brought him into Fulton county. He purchased Jacob Miller's saw mill at Tiosa and in September, 1895, lost it by fire. In December of the same year he began business at Rochester, where his mill has a daily output of 5,000 feet. Mr.

Shetterly first married in 1881 to Sadie Hill. She died without issue. His second marriage was in 1890 to Luella D., widow of J. B. Eckes, and daughter of a Mr. Burwell. Mr. Shetterly is an I. O. O. F. and a K. O. T. M.

WILLIAM JAY SHIELDS, postmaster of Rochester, was born in this city Aug. 20, 1852. His education was obtained from the schools of the town, and when a lad in his teens became errand boy and then clerk in his father's store. When the father closed his long and successful career as a merchant and wound up his business, Jay engaged in the fruit tree business and continued in it four years. He was from that time till his appointment as postmaster in the employ of county clerk, M. O. Rees, as his deputy. He became postmaster April 7, 1894. Mr. Shields' first public service was as town clerk, to which office he was elected some twenty years ago. Twelve years ago he was the democratic nominee for county recorder, but was defeated, as were many other democrats that year. Mr. Shields is a son of the venerable pioneer and ex merchant, Jesse Shields, of Rochester. Jesse Shields was born in Madison, Jefferson county, Ind., Sept. 15, 1820. His father, William Shields, was born near Lynchburg, Va. He emigrated to Indiana during the closing years of the eighteenth century and settled first in Jefferson county, but later moved to Jennings county, where he died, 1821. His wife, nee Elizabeth Logan, was born in North Carolina, and died in Washington county, Ind., 1826, leaving four children. Jesse was then only six years old and he was taken by a sister, Rhoda, wife of Nathan Rose, who, accompanied by Elizabeth (Shields) Lindsay, whose husband was the first blacksmith in this county, and William J. Shields, brother of Jesse, came to Fulton county in 1830 and located at the dam east of Rochester. Mrs. Rose and Mrs. Lindsay were the first white women in the county as residents. Jesse Shields learned the carpenter's trade in his youth and for three years made that his business. From 1840 to 1848 he was a forgerman in the foundry of Moore & McColm, in Rochester. He went into the company's store and clerked two years. He then opened a store of his own where the postoffice is now, but in an old building, and conducted a very successful business for nearly forty years, retiring in 1890. Jesse Shields has always acted with the democrats. He was elected to the state legislature in 1867, and worked and voted solely in the interest of the taxpayers. Mr. Shields was married first in this county in 1844 to Catherine Welton, who died the same year. Two years later he married Margaret Robbins, who died in 1865, leaving William Jay, our subject, Dr. A. M. and Mary, wife of Charles Kokendorfer, at Newark, Ohio. Mr. Shields' third marriage was in 1872 to Margaret McClung. Our subject was married Sept. 9, 1878, to Margaret Killen, daughter of Mark Killen, Sr., deceased, and Rebecca Apple. Their children are: Edwin J., died in infancy; Jesse Leroy and Harry Killen. Upon taking

charge of the postoffice Mr. Shields rearranged its interior so as to give better and more efficient service to the public. The stamp and money order window is open at all office hours and the general delivery service has undergone a marked change in the interest of the public by reducing the total time of opening the mails to about seventy minutes daily.

D. W. SIBERT was born in Washington county, Pa., Jan. 9, 1855. His parents were Daniel and Phebe (Sanders) Sibert. They were natives of Pennsylvania, and were married in that state. The father was of German descent and the mother of English. They came to Indiana in 1858, and first settled in Huntington county; one year later they settled in Henry township, Fulton county. The first eighteen years of Mr. Sibert's life were spent on the farm. Learning the trade of silver-smithing, he came to Kewanna in 1879, and made his first business venture. Here he has since conducted a jewelry and book store. He has been very successful and, though he began on limited means, he is now in the best of financial circumstances. He owns five business houses and three dwellings in Kewanna. In 1891 he and his father-in-law, J. H. Toner, established the Exchange bank of Kewanna, which has been a successful institution. In 1881 Mr. Sibert married Miss Lulah Toner.

BYRON E. SLICK, one of the representative farmers of Union township, was born in Morrow county, Ohio, May 27, 1853. Mr. Slick is a son of John and Susan (Halmon) Slick. His father was a son of Philip Slick and was born and brought up in Maryland. Mr. Slick's mother was born and reared in Pennsylvania. These parents were married in Ohio. They removed to Indiana in 1853 and settled in Union township, Fulton county. Here the father died in 1867. He was a successful farmer and a representative citizen. In politics he was first a whig, then a republican. His widow now (1896) resides with her son Elmer, a very successful teacher. Unto John and Susan Slick there were born the following children: Elvira, Byron E., Melvin, Herman and Elmer. Byron E. was reared on the farm and given a common school education. He remained under the parental roof till he reached the age of twenty-one years, and then began life for himself as a farm hand, working for monthly wages. April 3, 1878, he married Lucy Guise, of Union township, and then settled down in life. He has always farmed and success has crowned his efforts. He owns a good farm of 122 acres, and has it well improved. Politically he has adhered to the principles of the republican party. He and his wife are members of the United Brethren church, and they have an interesting family consisting of the following children: Milo B., Lessie, Jay, Stella, Vida and Emma.

HON. MILO R. SMITH, the subject of this biographical mention needs no introduction to the people of Fulton county, among whom he has lived many years. He was born in Logansport, Ind., July 1, 1829. He came of excellent parentage, but, unfortunately,

death deprived him of their guidance and counsel when a mere boy. His parents were Rev. James and Nancy Smith. They were pioneer settlers of Cass county, and located at Logansport when that city was a frontier town. The father was a blacksmith by trade, and a very skilled workman in steel. While following his trade at Rising Sun, Ind., Gen. Tipton induced him to go to Logansport to do the government blacksmithing at that place. He was a devout Christian, and soon after going to Logansport began preaching. He possessed a fine intellect, generous heart and a strong desire to do the will of God as revealed in the Scriptures. His labors as a Baptist minister were interrupted by death, in 1833, when forty-five years of age. He married Nancy Fertad, a Frenchman's daughter. She was an excellent woman, a devoted wife and mother. She bore him the following children: Crandon C., Amanda, Julia, Susan P., George P., Anthony F., Rev. Oscar F., Mary and Milo R. As noticed above the last named, Milo R., was left an orphan and for a short time resided with a sister at Knoxville, Ills. He became dissatisfied, left the home of his sister and started out in life on his own responsibility. Going west, he went on board a Mississippi river steamboat as cabin boy, and for about one year followed the river between St. Louis and St. Paul. At the solicitation of a brother he then returned to Logansport, where he was employed until the year 1856, when he came to Rochester, where he and his brother opened a dry goods store, under the firm name of A. F. Smith & Bro. This business venture was attended with indifferent success, and the firm went out of business after a duration of three years. Then Mr. Smith began the study of law and accepted employment in the county auditor's office. In 1863 the democratic party, with which he is identified, made him its candidate for county recorder, to which office he was elected in the fall of that year. He served two terms and such was his popularity as warrants the conclusion that he would have been again elected to the office but for the legislation which prohibited the possibility of his succeeding to the office. In 1872 Mr. Smith was again honored by the people, who elected him to the state senate from this and Cass county. For many years he has been engaged in the practice of law and in the loan and insurance business. He is unassuming and unostentatious, pleasant and agreeable in intercourse with his fellow-men, and is conversant on many subjects of interest. He has led an honest life and enjoys the esteem of many friends. His marriage with Eliza E. Lyon was solemnized March 26, 1863. Mrs. Smith's parents were David W. and Sarah (McCracken) Lyon. They have the following children: Estella, Gertrude and Eliza E. Mr. Lyon came to Rochester from West Liberty, Ohio. He was a good man, a successful merchant and respected citizen.

SILAS SMITH, farmer and stock-raiser, was born in Fulton county Sept. 18, 1849, and is a son of Jonathan and Lucy Smith.

His father, who was a pioneer of this county, was born in Pennsylvania Sept. 3, 1814, and his death occurred in this county Sept. 13, 1893. He married in his native state, wedding Lucy Ann Krepes, also a native of Pennsylvania. Unto the marriage the following children were born: George, died in infancy; John, a farmer and citizen of Union township and ex-soldier of company B, Eighty-seventh Indiana volunteer infantry in the civil war; Henry, Silas, Wilhelmina Sallie, deceased, and Jonathan K. The father and mother came by way of wagon from Ohio to Indiana, and in 1844 settled in Union township, this county, and here lived till they were called away by death. The mother died about 1856, and later the father married a second time, wedding Mary Ann Snyder, who bore him no children. She was a native of Pennsylvania, and died some two years prior to the date of his death. Jonathan Smith was one among the hardy pioneers of the county, and his first landed possessions in the county he entered. He grew prosperous and at the time of his death owned 520 acres of land. He was a staunch democrat, but never sought political office. He was a life-long member of the Reform church, and brought up his family in the faith of that church. He had an extensive acquaintance and enjoyed the confidence of all who knew him. His son, whose name introduces this sketch, was reared on the farm, and remained on the farm with his father until he reached the age of twenty-one years. In 1870 he married and settled down in life for himself. He was then not twenty-two years old. He married Harriet Overmyer, daughter of David Overmyer, Esq. She was born April 2, 1852. Unto the above marriage have been born the following children: Henry Albert, Howard, Cora, Millie, deceased, Walter Boid, Early, deceased, and Naomi. Mr. Smith has been very successful as a farmer and stock-raiser, and owns a fine and well improved farm of 228 acres. He is democratic in politics, and has served as assessor of Union township. He and wife are members of the Reform church.

ARCHIBALD STINSON, a thorough going and representative citizen of New Castle township, was born of pioneer Ohio parents in Ross county, that state, Aug. 21, 1847. He obtained his knowledge of the three r's in the usual way of boys reared on the farm, and this has served as a base for the broader and more liberal education of experience. His permanent abiding place was on the old homestead until after his marriage. April 10, 1878, when he was induced to visit Cleveland, Ohio, by a friend in the oil business. He accepted a position in the same business and remained in the city between two and three years. Having interests in Indiana that must be looked after, he resigned and came to Fulton county and settled on his present farm in 1882 or 1883. The next year he built his commodious residence, one of the largest in the township and has been busy since with such other improvements as a progressive, industrious farmer sees the need of. His farm contains 140 acres,

which he purchased while on a trip here some twenty-six years ago. In politics Mr. Stinson is a staunch republican. He is referred to as one of the party managers in the county. Mr. Stinson is a son of Archibald Stinson, born in Ross county, Ohio, 1800. He died there in 1876. He was a very successful farmer, being able to give each of his children a farm out of his own estate. He married Silence McCoy, whose father, John McCoy, was the first settler of Ross county, going there from Kentucky. Twelve children were born of this marriage, of whom our subject is the youngest. Our subject's wife was Josephine, a daughter of Stephen Davidson, a prominent farmer of this county and a pioneer. He was a representative to the state legislature from this district two terms and his prominence as a farmer led to his appointment as a member of the state board of agriculture. His brother is the Hon. W. H. Davidson, of this county. Mr. and Mrs. Stinson's only child is Arthur E., born Jan. 26, 1879.

DANIEL STRUCKMAN, one of the leading and enterprising farmers and stock-raisers of Fulton county, was born in Fairfield county, Ohio, Sept. 29, 1838, and is a son of Henry and Sophia (Elbright) Struckman, natives of Germany, who emigrated to the United States about 1830 and settled in Fairfield county, Ohio, where the father died at about fifty-five years and the mother at the advanced age of eighty-two years. The subject of this review is the fourth in a family of nine children, of whom four are living at this date, 1896. He was raised upon the farm and was a student at the early slab-seated school house in Fairfield county, Ohio. In 1860 he began farming upon his own responsibility in his native county, where he continued for four years, or until 1864, when he came to Fulton county and settled where he now resides. He first erected a log cabin, 16x20 feet, which was burned a few years later, and he then put up a frame structure, which was about the same size, and about eight years ago he built his present home. About eleven years ago his first good barn was erected and two years later it was struck by lightning and together with some thirty tons of hay was completely destroyed and he then built his present barn. When Mr. Struckman settled upon this land it was almost one continuous forest. He has cleared 180 acres and now owns 221 acres of fine land, all of which is located about three miles northeast of Rochester. In 1862 Mr. Struckman was united in marriage to Miss Samantha Fenstermaker, who was born in Ohio. To this union are these two children, viz.: Florence, now Mrs. Frank Carr, and William H. Politically, Mr. Struckman is a supporter of the democratic party. He is a progressive farmer and it would be better for Fulton county if she had more such men within her borders.

JACOB STUDEBAKER, of Liberty township, was born in Morgantown, Ohio, June 3, 1840. His father brought his family to Carroll county and located north of Delphi early in the 40's.

When he moved again it was to Cass county. Jacob was reared and educated sparingly in that county, and when he settled down for life it was in Fulton county that he located. His capital to begin business on was a colt and a calf. His beautiful home and productive farm lies on the south line of the county of Fulton. He bought it in 1863, and its present condition is the result of his industry and thrift. Mr. Studebaker was first married April 12, 1865, to Mary Ellen, daughter of Thomas Day, who was born in Ohio. Mrs. Studebaker died April 22, 1877, leaving Thomas, Joseph, Annie Belle, married to V. Buckingham, Fred, Elbert and Frank. Oct 6, 1881, Mr. Studebaker married Mary Ellen, widow of a Mr. Baker, and daughter of Samuel Kirk. Jacob Studebaker is a son of Joseph Studebaker, born in Pennsylvania, but reared in Ohio. He died in Cass county, 1880, at seventy-five years of age. The subject's grandfather, Philip Studebaker, was in captivity by the Indians of western Pennsylvania for seven years. His father had moved too far west for safety and his family was attacked by the Indians and he himself killed and his children carried away. The mother of our subject was Susana Most, born in North Carolina and reared in Ohio. Her children are: Elizabeth, deceased; Jacob, Nancy, wife of David Pownall, and David Studebaker, of Cass county. Mr. Studebaker is a strong republican and a worker in the Methodist church.

DR. A. B. SURGUY, druggist of Tiosa, was born in this county Aug. 4, 1850. He grew to manhood on his father's farm and secured his primary training from the district school. He completed his literary training in Oberlin college, Ohio, graduating in 1870. He chose medicine as his life work and to engage in the study of it he went to Laporte, Ind., and became a pupil of Drs. Higday & Meeker, remaining with them three years. He took his first course of lectures at Rush medical college and the next two courses in the Indiana medical college of Indianapolis, receiving a diploma from that institution Feb. 28, 1873. He practiced successfully in Kosciusko county, residing at Etna Green, some six years. He went abroad then and took a term of lectures in Queen's college hospital, London, England. He returned after a year's absence, located at Rochester, Ind., and became associated with Dr. Brackett. After four years of devotion to his profession here he retired temporarily and rusticated in southwestern Missouri a few months. He engaged in business next in Chicago, having his office at 64 and 66 Washington street. In 1890 he retired from practice and came back to Fulton county and engaged in the drug business at Tiosa. Dr. Surguy's father, William Surguy, was born in England. He came to America at twenty years of age, located in Brown county, Ohio, and married there, wedding Rachel Bell. They settled in Fulton not long after their marriage. Here Mr. Surguy died in May of 1864, at ninety years of age. His wife died soon after the

birth of the subject of this sketch. Their living children are: John, residing in Wisconsin; James, of Shawneetown, Ills.; Mary C., wife of John Perschbacher, of Tiosa; Sarah, wife of Joseph Ormsbee, of Tiosa; Annie, wife of H. B. Turner, of Union Mills, Ind.; and Dr. A. B. Surguy is a single man, a Mason and representative citizen.

JOHN S. TAYLOR, dairyman and farmer, is a native of Center county, Pa., born Nov. 11, 1831. He is a son of William and Susannah (Koop) Taylor, both natives of Pennsylvania, where the father died at fifty-two years of age and the mother now at eighty-one years of age, resides in Westmoreland county of her native state. By occupation the father of Mr. Taylor was a miller and carried on the milling business for quite a number of years in Pennsylvania. John S. Taylor received a common school education and then learned the tanner's trade, at which he worked for seven years near Ligonier, Pa. In 1854 he came to Indiana and settled in Miami county, near Peru and there carried on farming for ten years, or until 1864, when he came to Fulton county and for two years lived in Rochester and then removed to his present place of residence one-half mile north of Rochester. In 1868 Mr. Taylor began the dairy business and with the slight omission of one year has continued this industry ever since. His dairy is one of the best in northern Indiana. In connection with this interest he has for many years given considerable attention to stock interests, and now has on his farm of 107 acres some of the best blooded stock to be found in the county. The marriage of Mr. Taylor took place in December, 1852, to Miss Susan Ambrose, who was born in Westmoreland county, Pa., Dec. 17, 1833. She is a daughter of Killian and Elizabeth Ambrose, who came to Fulton county about the same time that the Taylor family came. To the union of Mr. and Mrs. Taylor are these two children: Madge and Charles E. In politics Mr. Taylor is an ardent republican and is a K. of H. He is a man of honest motive and he and family are highly respected.

SAMUEL P. TERRY, M. D., a native of this county, born May 15, 1861, son of Dr. Samuel S. and Sarah (McCloud) Terry. The former was born in Tompkins county, N. Y., in 1824, and died in Rochester in 1893. He was a son of Samuel and Laura Terry, natives of New York and of English descent. The late Dr. Terry obtained a good primary education. In 1840 he began the study of medicine and in 1844 graduated from the medical department of Willoughby university. In 1846 he came to Fulton county and located at Akron, but two years later removed to Rochester, where he resided until his death. He represented this and Miami county in the Indiana general assembly from 1864 to 1868. During the war he was first assistant surgeon of the seventy-third Indiana regiment. He was a man of pronounced ability and unquestioned character. The mother of Dr. Samuel P. Terry was born in Ohio and died in Rochester in 1883 and is yet remembered for her grace of character

and womanly purity. The subject of this review attended the Rochester schools until September, 1878, when he entered Notre Dame university and there continued for nearly four years. In 1882 he entered the law office of Judge J. S. Slick as a law student. Here he continued until 1884, when he was admitted to practice at the Fulton county bar. He continued the practice of law for some time and in 1894 began the study of medicine at the medical college of Ohio. March 23, 1896, he graduated from the college of physicians and surgeons at Indianapolis and is now engaged in the practice of his profession at Rochester. Dr. Terry was united in marriage Oct. 12, 1887, to Miss Mary E. Walker, of Rochester. To this union are these children, viz.: Lillian, Samuel W., and Frederick P. Politically Dr. Terry is a republican and a member of Rapier commandery, No. 1 at Indianapolis, and he is the only thirty-second degree Mason in Fulton county. He gave the name to Fredonia lodge, No. 122, K. of P., of which he was a charter member and its first chancellor commander.

E. B. TIPPY, whose residence in Fulton county dates from 1875, is accounted one of the practical and progressive agriculturists, and belongs to that class of citizens who have gained for Indiana marked prestige among the agricultural states of the Union. He was born in Franklin county, Ohio, Jan. 20, 1845. The family is of Scotch origin, and the father of our subject, Levi Tippy, was born near Johnstown, Ohio. He married Louie A. Denune, daughter of John Denune, who was born in Paris, France, and came to America with Gen. La Fayette, serving as a drummer boy with the French troops in the colonial army. He married a Miss Barrel, a relative of Gen. Grant's family. Levi Tippy died of cholera in Louisville, Ky., in 1852, at the age of thirty-five. His children were as follows: George, who is living near Columbus, Ohio; E. B.; and Lewis, deceased. Our subject was left an orphan at the age of six years, and was reared by a Mr. Brown in Delaware county, Ohio, until nineteen years of age. He then bought his time, and removed to Livingston county, Mo., but returned after eight months and learned the carpenter's trade in Delaware county, under S. Gorsuch. He afterward married and then removed to Boone county, Mo., but in a short time again returned to Delaware county, where he lived for four years. At the expiration of that period he began farming, which he continued in Ohio until coming to Indiana, in 1875. His first land was purchased with money that he had earned at school teaching. He here bought forty acres of land just east of Bloomingsburg, which he operated for four years, when he sold and purchased a farm adjoining the village, comprising 115 acres. He is progressive in his methods and at the same time extremely practical in his work, so that he has won a comfortable competence. Mr. Tippy was married Jan. 20, 1867, to Emma Fix, daughter of David Fix, and their home was blessed with six children—Della, wife of Jesse Emmons; Frank,

a popular young man who possesses much mechanical genius; Levi, who married Ella Ross and resides in New Castle township; Ida, a teacher; Eva and Linnie. Mr. Tippy is one of the leaders of the democracy in his township, and is now serving as trustee, having entered upon the duties of the office on Aug. 5, 1895. His genuine worth has won him the high esteem of all, and he well deserves recognition in this volume.

HOLMES L. TIPTON, ex-recorder of Fulton county, and a representative of one of the old families of the county, was born on his father's farm in New Castle township, Nov. 5, 1854. He is the son of Joshua Tipton, a native of Coshocton county, Ohio, born March 6, 1813. His mother, who bore the maiden name of Elizabeth Fuller, was born Oct. 2, 1816. They were married in 1835, and in 1838 removed to Kosciusko county, Ind., whence in 1839 they came to New Castle township, Fulton county, where the father successfully carried on farming until his death. He died Aug. 18, 1893, leaving a valuable estate. The children of the family are: Daniel, of Kosciusko county; Thomas, of Butler county, Kans.; John, of Marion county, Iowa; James, of Rochester; Hannah, wife of Obadiah Hopper; Margaret, deceased wife of Amos Hider; Florence, wife of Perry Hamlet, of Barron county, Wis., and Alpheus, wife of Charles Baxter. Mr. Tipton, of this review, spent his childhood as a farmer lad, assisting in the labors of the field and receiving about the usual training in the district schools. On attaining his majority he began farming on his own account, at first renting a tract of land and afterward purchasing. His youth experience in this line now proved to him of value and he successfully carried on agricultural pursuits until November, 1891, when he was elected to the office of county recorder on the democratic ticket. His personal popularity and the confidence reposed in him by those who know him is shown by the fact that he received all but seven votes of his own party and at least one hundred of the republican party. His prompt and efficient discharge of the duties of the office fully showed that the trust reposed in him was not misplaced. On his retirement from public office he resumed grain farming and stock dealing, and his operations along these lines have proved to him a profitable source of income. He owns some valuable real estate in New Castle township and also in Rochester, where he now resides. On Dec. 1, 1876, Mr. Tipton married Nancy Ashton, who was born in Mansfield, Ohio, thirty-nine years ago, a daughter of Charles Ashton. She was left an orphan at a very early age and was reared by a relative. She has a sister, Annie, now the wife of John Gano, of Chicago, and two brothers, C. Ashton, of Fostoria, Ohio, and George, of the state of Washington. The children of Mr. and Mrs. Tipton are Echo, aged nineteen, who was educated in the Rochester schools, and was her father's able assistant in the recorder's office; Lula, born in 1880; Celia, in 1883; and Bessie, in 1890. Mr. Tipton

is one of the best known men in Fulton county. Possessed of excellent business and executive ability, he has won success in his undertakings, and his genial, social manner has made him a popular citizen and gained him many warm friends.

A. D. TONER, one of the most successful citizens of Fulton county, was born in Fayette county, Ind., June 20, 1834. His parents were Samuel and Anna (Shaffer) Toner. Unto them were born eleven children, of which the subject of this mention is the youngest. He was about eight years of age when his parents came to Fulton county and settled in Wayne township. Mr. Toner grew to manhood on the farm and gained a fair common school education. He remained on the farm till about 1859, when he became a resident of Kewanna and about that time began dealing in live stock, in which business he continued until about 1880. This, his first business venture, proved successful. In 1880 he became the prime factor in a movement for the construction of a railroad from Logansport through Kewanna to South Bend, and was instrumental in the organization of a company of Kewanna citizens for the construction of the railroad. The movement resulted in inducing the Vandalia railroad company to propose building a railroad from Logansport to lake Maxinkuckee, in consideration of the right of way and \$20,000. Mr. Toner, P. S. Troutman, John F. Wilson and Hickman Phillips assumed the responsibility of securing the right of way and the \$20,000, becoming responsible to the Vandalia railroad company for the named consideration. They were aided in making this subsidy good by the public, who voted taxation and gave donations. Mr. Toner built thirteen miles of the road as a contractor and, as soon as the road was completed he erected a small elevator at Kewanna. Four years later additions were made to the elevator, and machinery for making flour was placed in it. Since then this mill and elevator has been owned and operated by the firm of A. D. Toner & Brunk. Mr. Toner was one of the parties who built the Masonic temple of Kewanna. In 1886 he erected what is now the Toner house, which hotel building he owns. Mr. Toner has done much toward the upbuilding of Kewanna. He has erected several fine brick business houses, as well as several residences, and now owns considerable property in the town. He is progressive and ever ready to contribute to the improvement of the town. It was mainly due to him that the H. J. Hinze company was induced to establish a pickle salting house at Kewanna in 1894. July 25, 1893, Mr. Toner established the Kewanna bank, of which he is sole proprietor, and H. D. Howell cashier. He has always been interested in farming and now owns in Wayne and Union townships nearly 1,000 acres of highly cultivated land. He built the second frame barn erected in Union township. He began his business career without a dollar, but by means of his superior business ability, energy and enterprise he amassed considerable wealth. In politics

he has always been a democrat. He served as representative of Fulton and Pulaski counties in the general assembly of Indiana session of 1884-85.

JOHN HENDERSON TONER is of one of the oldest and best known families in Fulton county. He was born in Shelby county, Ind., Jan. 7, 1826. His parents were Samuel and Annie (Shafer) Toner. His father was of Irish descent and his mother of German. They were born and married in Northumberland county, Pa., came to Indiana in 1832, and first settled in Shelby county. In the fall of 1843 they settled in Wayne township, Fulton county, where they resided till death. They had eleven children. The subject of this biographical sketch gained a fair common school education and very early in life began farming on his own account. For many years he continued farming and, though he began as a renter, success followed his efforts and at present he owns a fine farm of 381 acres. In 1889 Mr. Toner removed from his farm into Kewanna, where he has since lived, and in 1891 he and his son-in-law, D. W. Sibert, established the Exchange bank of Kewanna, which they have since operated. Mr. Toner has been twice married. In 1848, he wedded Elizabeth Updegraff, who died leaving no children, and in 1857 he married Hester A. Graham. Unto the second marriage was born a daughter, Lulah by name, now the wife of D. W. Sibert. In church faith Mr. and Mrs. Toner are Methodists. He has been a member of the I. O. O. F. since 1857. Mr. Toner enjoys the esteem and confidence of his fellow-citizens, and has always been identified as a representative citizen of the county. In politics he was formerly a democrat, but is now a prohibitionist. He has never sought political preferment.

JOEL R. TOWNSEND, of Liberty township, is a son of the late Joel Townsend, who was a settler in this township as early as 1834. His log cabin was of the rudest sort. His bed was supported by pins in the wall and chest or trunk served as his table. His means were very limited, so much so that at one time he was forced to dispose of a copper kettle brought from Ohio to get money to pay his taxes. But he was frugal and industrious and before his death, May 31, 1879, fortune had put him in possession of over 1,000 acres of land and much personal property. He was born in England in 1808; came to the United States in 1820, and was reared near Cleveland. He married Vesta Collins, who shared all his privations and enjoyed with him the years of his prosperity. Their living children are: Ansel B., Joel R., Lucy A., Harrison, living in Tabor, Iowa, and John N. Joel R. Townsend was born in Liberty township, Fulton county, May 12, 1848. He was educated at the Oliver school house and was engaged in farming till twenty-eight years old, when he engaged in merchandising in Macy. In three years he retired from this business and went on the road as traveling salesman for Isaac Stern & Co., of Kokomo, dealers in cigars. He remained in

this business four years and next engaged with the Alden vinegar company, of St. Louis, and was with these people four years. His next employers were Huffman & Co., Indianapolis, with whom he remained till Dec. 6, 1895. Since that time he has resided on his farm of 180 acres, keeping up the odds and ends about a well conducted farm. Mr. Townsend was first married Nov. 26, 1869, to Elizabeth Stilbs, who died in March, 1875, leaving one child, viz.: Mary, wife of Robert Miller, Macy, Ind. Nov. 25, 1875, Mr. Townsend married Clarissa, daughter of George Carter. Mr. Townsend is a republican and is quite active in party politics in the county.

JOHN E. TROUTMAN, born in Fulton county, Ind., April 17, 1851, is a son of John and Amanda (Blandin) Troutman. The father was born in 1828 in Kentucky. He died in Fulton county, Ind., in 1851. He was a son of Ambrose Troutman, also a native of Kentucky, and a son of Michael Troutman, who was born in Germany and emigrated to America and settled in Pennsylvania, where he died. The mother of the subject of this sketch was born in 1830, in New York and died in Fulton county, Ind., in 1875. She was a daughter of Jesse and Maria Blandin, who were of German lineage. Her parents removed from New York to Ohio, thence to Indiana, settling in Fulton county, near Leiter's Ford, in 1840. Ambrose Troutman, the paternal grandfather of J. E. Troutman, removed from Kentucky to Attica, Ind., in 1828. In 1839 he settled in Fulton county, near Kewanna. The marriage of John Troutman and Amanda Blandin occurred in Fulton county. The subject of this mention is their only child. His father died in the same year the son was born. His mother remained on the farm and the management of the farm was assumed by John E., when he was but eleven years of age. His mother's second husband was William Mossman, who served in the civil war for four years. During his absence, while in the service, John E. took charge of the farm. Hard work and perseverance, therefore, he shared very early in life. He had but little time for going to school, but attended the country schools a little and while at home by the fireside he applied himself to his books, and at the age of twenty years he became a teacher in the district schools. For twenty-three years he taught in the schools of Fulton county. He has always had farm interests and lived on the farm till 1886, when he became a resident of Rochester. He was elected justice of the peace in 1884, but on removing to Rochester he resigned the office. In 1894 he was elected justice of the peace again and is the present incumbent of that office. He is a republican in politics, is a member of the Evangelical church of Rochester, member of the order of Red Men and of the I. O. O. F. In 1884 Mr. Troutman married Malina Neff, of Fulton county. She was born in Pennsylvania in 1854. Mr. and Mrs. Troutman have two children: Chloe and Earl.

EMANUEL JOSEPH URBIN, farmer and citizen of Wayne

township, was born in Fairfield county, Ohio, Dec. 8, 1854. His parents were John and ——— (Poff) Urbin. They were born in Germany, but married in Ohio. They came to Fulton county in the spring of 1864, and settled where the subject of this sketch now resides and owns sixty acres of land. They both died in the years 1876, when she was sixty-one years of age and he seventy-one. They were members of the German Reform church, and were highly respected. The subject of this sketch began life for himself at the age of eighteen, by working out as a farm hand. In 1876, when twenty-two years of age, he married Harriet J., daughter of A. J. Toner, Esq. Unto the marriage the following children have been born. Elsie Floyd, Mirtie Fay, Bessie May, deceased; Toner Lee, Ernest Guy and Victor Joseph. Mr. Urbin is a progressive and representative citizen; is prosperous and has a fine farm.

JOHN W. VANKIRK, a thrifty and enterprising farmer of Aubbeenaubbee township, Fulton county, Ind., first saw the light of day on March 25, 1854. Mr. Vankirk was born in Pulaski county, Ind., in which county his father settled at an early date, removing there from Pennsylvania, his native state. Mr. Vankirk was reared on the farm and taught the valuable lessons of industry, perseverance and frugality, and these he has crowded into his life. He remained with his father until he was twenty-four years of age, and then began life for himself. Selecting a wife in the person of Mary E. Wagoner, whom he married Dec. 22, 1877, Mr. Vankirk started out in life by moving to one of his father's farms, where he farmed on the shares for seven years, at the close of which he removed on a farm of 55 acres, which his wife had inherited. Later he purchased interests of other heirs in sixty-three adjoining acres, and now Mr. Vankirk controls both tracts. Here he has resided for a number of years and diligently applied his talents in the honorable calling of farming, growing prosperous and highly respected. Though a strong republican in politics, Mr. Vankirk has never aspired to office. The home of Mr. and Mrs. Vankirk has been blessed by the birth of three children, George, Etta and Albert.

JACKSON WAGNER, the son of Jacob and Rebecca (Hendricks) Wagner was born in Sandusky county, Ohio, Jan. 21, 1843. Jacob Wagner was born in Perry county, Ohio, in 1812. Rebecca was born in Sandusky, Ohio, in 1823. The parents were married in Ohio and came to Indiana in 1850, and settled in Aubbeenaubbee township, Fulton county, Ind. The father was through life a very hard and diligent worker and at the time of his death owned 139 acres of valuable land. He died July 20, 1880. The mother still survives and resides with her son-in-law, John Cohler. Unto Jacob and Rebecca Wagner were born the following children: Jackson, Elizabeth, Noah, Emanuel, Mary, deceased; Jacob, deceased; Sarah, deceased; John, Ellen, deceased; Jonas and Jacob F. Jackson, the subject of this sketch, remained with his parents until

the age of twenty-one years. He then worked out as a farm hand for two years, was then a renter for two years, and finally, March 5, 1868, was married to Miss Mary Hood, the daughter of Frederick and Mary Hood. To the marriage were born the following children: Arthur N., Ida, Captola, Elnora, Jacob F. and Lulu May, twins, one of the twins, Lulu May, is dead; George, deceased; Etta and Nanetta, twins. Mr. Wagner has always farmed, and at the present time owns some 187 acres of good land. He received a small amount from home in 1888. He and his wife are members of the Methodist Episcopal church. He has always been a staunch democrat. He has been a hard and diligent laborer throughout his life.

NOAH WAGNER, the son of Jacob and Rebecca Wagner, and a brother of Jackson Wagner, mentioned elsewhere in this work, was born in Sandusky county, Ohio, Jan. 14, 1847. He remained with his parents until the age of twenty-one, having in the meantime received a common school education. Dec. 30, 1866, he was married to Elizabeth Coon, the daughter of John and Elizabeth Coon. At the time of his marriage he owned one horse and possessed \$15 in money. He began farming on the farm he now owns. The farm was then the property of his father-in-law. From time to time he purchased the rights of his wife's brothers and sisters until now he is the owner of 100 acres of valuable land. He has been interested in stock-raising in connection with his farming. Unto him and his wife have been born eight children: Sarah Almeta, William Lee, Lizzie Jeanette, Rebecca Viola, deceased; Noah Harvey, Nellie Edna, Hetta Alma, and Netta Leona. He has always supported the democratic party. He and his wife are members of the Methodist church, and are leaders in their community.

KYRAN WALSH, one of the most successful farmers and one of the highly respected citizens of Fulton county, was born in county Kilkenny, Ireland, Nov. 7, 1830. His parents were James and Margaret (Gaul) Walsh, both of whom were natives of county Kilkenny, Ireland. Mr. Walsh's paternal grandfather was Kyran Walsh, and for him Mr. Walsh was named. The Walsh family, like many other Anglo-Normans, adopted an Irish surname and title, and was known for ages as "Branach," which signifies in Irish a Welchman. At an early period it had extensive possessions in Waterford and Kilkenny. For four centuries it was only inferior in estate and power to the Butlers and Graces. Thus the subject of this personal mention is a descendant of one of Ireland's oldest and most prominent families. In the schools of Ireland he gained the rudiments of a common school education. Throughout life he has been a close observer and an extensive reader. Hence he is a well informed man, and being a man of foresight and wisdom he stands as a leader among his fellow-citizens. He came to America on the ship Thames, landing in New Orleans Jan. 14, 1849. His ship set sail

for America with a passenger crew of 900, of whom but about sixty landed alive, owing to ship fever and other diseases which originated at sea. From New Orleans Mr. Walsh went to Cincinnati, where he arrived in the midst of the cholera, from which there were many deaths daily at that time. Mr. Walsh landed in Cincinnati May 13, 1849, and there engaged in the dairy business. Six years later he removed to Dayton, Ohio, where he took up farming, at which occupation he had been reared. In January, 1859, Mr. Walsh landed in Wayne township, Fulton county. Here he has since resided. On coming to the county, he was a very poor man, but, determined on success, he began farming as a renter, and continued as such until 1862, when he purchased eighty acres for a home in future years, to which, by industry and integrity, he added other acreage, until he has become the owner of nearly 400 acres, a part of which has been divided among his children. He has improved his farm and made it one of the best in the county. He has a good and substantial frame residence, which he built. A few years ago a very fine barn of his was burned, causing him a loss of about \$2,000. In 1854, Mr. Walsh was fortunate in securing in holy matrimony the hand of Ann Hoynes, a native of Ireland, also. She is the oldest daughter of Patrick and Margaret Hoynes. The home of Mr. and Mrs. Walsh has been blessed by the birth of the following children: Margaret, James, Patrick, deceased; Edward, deceased; Mary Ann, deceased; Mary Ann, deceased; John J., William W. and Hannah, deceased. Mrs. Walsh is a most excellent lady, a faithful wife and loving mother. The entire family belong to the Roman Catholic church, and is one of the leading families of the community. In politics Mr. Walsh has always been a staunch democrat, and was twice elected justice of the peace with overwhelming majorities. He has led a consistent life, dealt honestly and kindly with his fellow-man, reared a respectable family, gained the esteem of his neighbors, and won from reluctant fortune a good estate, and to-day stands as a representative and progressive citizen.

WILLIAM A. WARD, Rochester, Ind.—To have lived in Fulton county continuously since 1832 and to have been twice honored with the office of sheriff and now, March 11, 1896, to be only one of two living persons who came here in that early year, is sufficient to make a man honored. "Del" Ward, as he is familiarly known, was born in the state of New York Feb. 26, 1829, and is the son of Ebenezer and Rachael (Spencer) Ward, who were natives of the same state and who came to Fulton county, Ind., in 1832, bringing with them their family of seven children, of whom the subject of this review is the only one living. The mother died in 1841, and the father in 1847. The father was a farmer by occupation. He was a man of good education and in the early part of his manhood he gave some of his time to the ministry. Upon coming here he taught the first school in Fulton county, and this school was attended by

"Del" Ward. His brother, John B. Ward, was the first lawyer to hang out his shingle for the practice of law in Rochester. The earlier years of Mr. Ward were devoted to farming, but later he turned his attention to the business of veterinary surgeon and livery. For nearly fifty years he has been known as a reliable surgeon in this line. He was engaged continuously in the livery business in this city for more than eighteen years or until 1871. In politics he has always been identified with the democratic party and in 1876 was elected sheriff of Fulton county and re-elected in 1878 by the magnificent majority of 465. He was one of the best sheriffs the county ever had. In 1895 he again engaged in the livery business and now, with his son, Dr. Henry Ward, continues the same. Mr. Ward was married in 1853 to Miss Adeline H. Howes, who was born in Johnson county, Ind., and died in Rochester in 1890, at about fifty-seven years of age. Mr. Ward is a member of the Masonic fraternity and is a man of unquestioned character and one of the best known men in Fulton county. Of three children born to the subject of this sketch only Dr. Henry Ward is living. He was born in Rochester in 1856, was educated at the schools of Rochester and in 1887 graduated from the Ontario veterinary college at Toronto, Canada, and since that time has been engaged in the practice of his profession. He was married in 1878 to Miss Ray Samuels, a native of Ohio. To this union is one child, Idelman. He is a democrat in politics, a Mason, a member of the I. O. O. F. and K. of P.

E. P. WASHBURN, M. D., one of the prominent physicians of Fulton county, is a native of Cass county, Ind. He was born Jan. 24, 1842. His parents were William W. Washburn and Jane Calvin, both of whom were born and reared in Brown county, Ohio. They were married in Cass county, Ind., but soon afterward moved into Pulaski county, where they reared their family of six children, of which the subject of this biography is the eldest. Dr. Washburn gained a fair common school education, and was nineteen years of age when the civil war broke out. October, 1861, he enlisted as a private in company H, Forty-sixth Indiana infantry. In February, 1863, he re-enlisted in the same company. With his company he aided in the work of opening the Mississippi river from Columbus south. He participated in the siege of Vicksburg, and was on the Red river expedition, a difficult and disastrous one, in which his regiment was reduced to about 200 soldiers. The doctor was discharged Sept. 10, 1865, at the close of the war. Then his return home followed, and for five years thereafter the doctor was engaged in farming, a calling never in keeping with his choice. The practice of medicine he wished to follow, and first preparing for the profession by studying under a practicing physician as preceptor, he then took a course in medicine in the medical college of Indiana at Indianapolis. Locating at Linden, Ind., he took up the practice of the profession. Subsequently he returned to the medical college of Indiana, whence

he graduated March 3, 1881. He continued an active and successful practice at Linden till 1890, in which year he removed to Kewanna, Fulton county, where he now resides and has a large and remunerative practice. In the year 1859, Dr. Washburn was united in marriage with Rebecca Reichard, of Pulaski county, Ind. Mrs. Washburn was born in Darke county, Ohio, Nov. 16, 1839. The union has been blessed by the birth of the following children: Isabella J.; Newton E., deceased; John M.; Blanche A.; and Burt H. The doctor is a prominent member of the Masonic fraternal organization, the Grand Army of the Republic and Knights of the Maccabees and a republican in politics. John M. Washburn, M. D., a son of Dr. E. P. Washburn, and associated with his father in the practice of medicine, was born in Marion county, Ind., Dec. 6, 1867. He was given a good common school education. He learned telegraphy and was a railroad operator for five or six years; then studied medicine under the guidance of his father. He then spent three years in the medical college of Indiana, whence he graduated March 29, 1895, since which time he has practiced his profession in association with his father. He was married June 11, 1894, to Miss Matie Sears. He is a member of the Masonic order; of the Sons of Veterans, and Knights of the Maccabees.

EDWARD WENTZEL, was born in Northumberland county, Pa., Nov. 21, 1830. His parents were Christophal and Leah (Adams) Wentzel. They were natives of Pennsylvania and of German parentage. They had twelve children, all of whom grew to manhood and womanhood. The subject of this sketch remained at home with his parents until 1855, when he was married to Elizabeth Schwartz, a native of Pennsylvania, of German origin. In the spring of 1858 Mr. Wentzel came to Fulton county and settled on his present farm in Union township, where he now owns 340 acres of land. He has been a successful farmer, and has reared a good family. Unto him and his wife the following children have been born: Nathaniel, who married Ida Bitterling, and is now a farmer; Julia Ann, who is the wife of Rev. A. E. Gift; and Jesse, who married Ruth M. Singer, and is now a farmer. Nov. 29, 1864, Mr. Wentzel became a private in company E, Ninth Indiana infantry. He was discharged by reason of the close of the war, Oct. 18, 1865. He is a member of the Grand Army of the Republic. He and his sons are republicans in politics. The whole family are members of the Evangelical Lutheran church.

BENJAMIN ODEN WEST.—This gentleman is the representative of the Chicago & Erie railway, and agent for the Wells-Fargo express company, at Rochester, Ind. He is a native of Washington, D. C., born Jan. 9, 1858. He is a son of Benjamin Oden and Helen West, whose maiden name was Williams. The father of Mr. West was born in Maryland and his death occurred in Washington, D. C., in 1858. The mother of our subject with her

daughter (Helen Oden) now resides with her son in Rochester. Mr. West first attended a private school in the city of his nativity, and later was for four years a student at the Maryland agricultural college, where he succeeded in acquiring a good education. In 1881 he entered the employ of what was then the Mutual Union telegraph company of New York city, but which has since been absorbed by the Western Union company. Here Mr. West continued until June, 1882, when he entered the employ of what was then the Chicago & Atlantic railway company, now the Chicago & Erie line, in the capacity of civil engineer and this trust he held until the completion of the line to Chicago. Mr. West came to Rochester March 27, 1883, and since that time he has been the Chicago & Erie's agent at this place. He has been the agent for the Wells-Fargo express company here since 1886. He is a man in whom the companies he represents and the people of his adopted city have implicit faith and confidence. In 1879 he was united in marriage with Miss Jennie Helvin, a native of North Carolina. They have two children, viz.: Irene O. and Charles W. In politics Mr. West is a democrat and cast his first presidential vote for Hancock. He is a member of Fredonia lodge, No. 122, K. of P., and Mrs. West is a member of the Episcopal church. They are among the highly respected citizens of Rochester.

DANIEL WHITTENBERGER is one of Fulton county's most honored pioneers, having for more than sixty years been identified with its interests. He was born in Pennsylvania, April 24, 1825, a son of William Whittenberger, deceased, the first settler of Akron. Daniel was a lad of eleven years when his parents started for the then far west, in company with nine families, who sought homes on the frontier. They traveled from the 1st of June until the 4th of July, when they pitched their tent on the present site of Akron, about where the town pump now stands. During the last ten miles of their trip they had to cut their way through the forest. The father entered a quarter section of timber land, two miles southwest of the village, and there made his home for forty-two years, when in 1878 his life labors were ended and he was called to the home beyond. Daniel Whittenberger spent his minority with his parents and acquired sufficient education to enable him to teach a district school, so that for several years he was the "master" in a little log school house, located on the farm now belonging to Reuben Whittenberger. Going to Warren county, Ohio, he began learning the carpenter's trade, which he completed in Cincinnati, and on his return he followed that business in Henry township for thirty years, erecting all of the more substantial buildings in Akron in that early day. Success attended his efforts and on his marriage he bought a small tract of land adjoining Akron and began farming. To-day he is the owner of 557 acres of rich land near the town, besides other valuable property, which has been secured entirely through his own labors, guided by sound judgment. Mr. Whittenberger was married Feb.



DANIEL WHITTENBERGER.

2, 1850, to Fannie McCloud. Her father, George McCloud, was born in Ontario county, New York, Dec. 18, 1801, and wedded Polly Lowe, by whom he had four children—Mrs. Jacob Whittenberger; George, who died of cholera on the plains; Sarah, deceased wife of Dr. S. S. Terry; and Mrs. Daniel Whittenberger. Our subject and his wife have three children—Charles A., born in 1850, married Nancy Gatrel, and has a son, Merrill; Allison S., born in 1853, and now a farmer of Kosciusko county, married Annie Slaybaugh, and their children are Theodosia, John O. and Asy, aged respectively seventeen, twelve and two years; Laura B. is the wife of Charles Vickery, a farmer of Kosciusko county, and has two sons, Walter and Earl. Mr. Whittenberger is a staunch republican in politics and as a citizen seeks to advance the interests of good government and to promote the welfare of his resident community. He and his wife are highly esteemed for their genuine worth and their long residence in the county thoroughly entitles them to personal mention in this volume.

REV. JACOB WHITTENBERGER.—A long and honored identification with the history of Fulton county has connected the name of our subject inseparably with its history. He has been prominent in business life and has been an earnest laborer in those interests calculated to advance the general welfare and over the record of his long residence here there falls no shadow of wrong. Mr. Whittenberger was born in Beaver county, Pa., April 5, 1819. His grandfather, also named Jacob, was of German lineage, and was born in eastern Pennsylvania, in 1859. Having aided the colonies in their struggle for independence, he was married in southeastern Pennsylvania to Catherine Engle, and in 1803 removed to Beaver county. He had eighteen children by two marriages. William Whittenberger, the father of our subject, being the ninth. The latter was born in Bedford county, Pa., March 28, 1795, and was married in Beaver county, Sept. 12, 1816, to Joanna, daughter of Joseph and Lucretia (Johnson) Sippy. Her father was born in France, in 1754, and with Gen. LaFayette's forces aided in the establishment of the American republic. In 1831 William Whittenberger removed with his family to Medina county, Ohio, and five years later came to Fulton county. His children were William, Jacob, Joseph, Daniel, Stephen and Thomas, in Fulton county; John of LaCrosse, Kan.; Abraham, of Kosciusko county; Isaac, of South Whitley, Ind.; Hiram, of Whitley county; and Mrs. Dr. Harter, of Akron. At the age of seventeen Jacob Whittenberger began an apprenticeship to a cabinet maker in Cleveland, Ohio, and later worked as a mechanic in Muskingum county, Ohio, until 1840, when on June 31 he wedded Mary Supinger, who was born in Virginia, in 1820. Fifteen days later they started by wagon for Fulton county, reaching Akron on Aug. 6. Mr. Whittenberger bought a small tract of land and erected a cabin,

where a few years later he built his present residence, the only Indiana home he has ever known. From 1855 until 1870 he was a prosperous merchant of Akron, and since has been successfully engaged in farming. Mrs. Whittenberger died Nov. 27, 1855, and her six children are all now deceased. On April 10, 1856, Mr. Whittenberger married Mrs. Mary Shelt, and they have two daughters—Ella A., wife of L. M. Noyer, of Akron, and Ina M., wife of George K. Brundige, county recorder. For twenty-three years the father has been an Odd Fellow, and has several times been a representative in the grand lodge. For many years he served as justice of the peace, was postmaster of Akron for eight years, and for a number of years was township trustee, discharging all his public duties with marked fidelity and promptness. In politics he is a stalwart republican. He united with the Methodist church in 1837, was ordained a deacon in 1866, served as secretary of the quarterly conference for twenty-five years, and for thirty-five years has been actively engaged in the work of ministry.

JAMES S. WILDER, who for the past twenty-five years has been a successful farmer of this county, was born in Monroe county, Mich., Oct. 21, 1846. He was educated sparingly in the country schools of his county, and before reaching the age to begin civil pursuits independent of parental sanction, he allowed his patriotism to draw him into the struggle of the United States to put down the southern rebellion. He enlisted at Toledo, Ohio, in company F, Fourteenth Ohio volunteer infantry, before he was eighteen years old. He was mustered in at Cleveland and was sent to Chattanooga, through Nashville and on to Ringgold, Ga., where he was doing guard duty until he was taken down with the measles. He was not able for duty again for some weeks. When he became convalescent he returned to Nashville and was furloughed home. He returned to the field in twenty-eight days and at Nashville was attached to the First Tennessee light artillery for a short time and later to the Forty-fifth New York. He was assigned to a detachment of the Fourteenth corps at Chattanooga and participated with it in annihilating Hood's army at Nashville. The second day he was ordered to report at Gen. Steadman's headquarters and for the following two weeks acted as an escort to that officer. He left this service at Chattanooga and took boat at Nashville for Parkersburg on the way to Washington, D. C. He was ordered south and went by boat from Alexandria, Va., to North Carolina, and joined his regiment near Goldsboro. When Johnston had surrendered all were joined to Sherman's army and set out for Washington to participate in the grand review. The war being over, Mr. Wilder was mustered out of the service at Louisville, Ky. On his return home he was occupied on the farm one or two seasons, and then secured work in a saw-mill. Two years later he came to Indiana and to Rochester, and

learned the baker's trade with an uncle, J. W. Wilder. He followed this two years and then began his career as a farmer in this county. He owns a farm of 100 acres near Rochester, besides two smaller tracts near town. He has just completed a cozy and handsome residence in Rochester. Mr. Wilder was married Feb. 14, 1871, to Hester A. Mackey, a sister of H. C. Mackey, of Rochester. Their children are: Frank, born August, 1872, and Mary, born May 21, 1881. Mr. Wilder is a republican in politics, a successful man in business, and an exemplary citizen.

JAMES H. WILSON, a representative farmer and business man, was born in Union township, Fulton county, Ind., Oct. 27, 1848. Mr. Wilson is a son of Thomas and Agnes (Wallace) Wilson. His father was born in Glasgow, Scotland, March 23, 1814, and with his parents emigrated to Canada in 1820, later to Oneida county, N. Y., where Thomas learned the weaver's trade. In Oneida county Thomas met and married (1839) Agnes Wallace, whose parents had settled there in 1833. She was born in Renfrewshire, Scotland, April 14, 1815. Our subject's parents came to Fulton county in 1842, settling in Union township, where they lived many years and reared a family of three sons and two daughters, namely, John F., James H., William F., Mary A. and Margaret. James H. was given a good common school education, and he taught several terms of school. He was married to Catherine Killmer, Feb. 13, 1870. She was born in Pennsylvania, Feb. 21, 1850. She died Jan. 8, 1871. Just after his marriage Mr. Wilson began farming as a renter. His wife lived but one year after the marriage. After her death he engaged in the stock business, in which he has since been more or less extensively engaged. In 1876, Feb. 24, he married a second wife, wedding Etta Vankirk, daughter of George Vankirk, Esq., of Aulbeenaublee township, where Mrs. Wilson was born Oct. 27, 1857. She has borne him three children, viz.: Harry, Belle and Frances. After his marriage, Mr. Wilson again took up farming, which he has since continued. He now owns a good farm of 145 acres, on which he resides just east of Kewanna. In 1890 Mr. Wilson became a stockholder in the Citizens' State bank, of which bank he has been president since 1892. Politically he has always been a staunch republican. In 1887 he was elected trustee for Union township, in which office he served one term.

LOUIS WOHLGEMUTH.—This enterprising and progressive citizen, who has won his own success in social and financial affairs, was born in Prussia some forty-five years ago. Working his way through college, Mr. Wohlgemuth graduated in 1867 from a German gymnasium and the same year embarked for America. He landed in New York city with plenty of courage and zeal and little money. He soon found employment, and after remaining in that city about one year, decided to go west, locating at Cincinnati, where he was engaged at book-keeping and newspaper work for ten years.

He then went to Topeka, Kan., and there engaged in business for himself. Two years later he sold out the business and came to Rochester in 1881, to assume management of the extensive clothing business he still controls. During his stay in Cincinnati Mr. Wohlgenuth was employed for three years by the Block publishing and printing company as a correspondent, writer and translator. He is well informed on many subjects. He has made a special study of the languages and is a linguist of no mean pretensions. On coming to Rochester Mr. Wohlgenuth assumed management of the well known Feder & Silberberg clothing house, and since that time has been the sole manager of this successful business institution, which was established in 1868 by Louis Feder and Max Silberberg. The firm of Feder & Silberberg, through its thrift and industry, soon discovered that, instead of purchasing goods from manufacturers, they could make them and supply their retail stores, which they afterward established at original cost and thus save the profits of middle-men. The firm moved to Cincinnati in 1880, where they began to manufacture goods, opened a wholesale clothing house. Success has followed the business course of this firm, which is now known far and wide. Their Rochester store was placed in the hands of Mr. L. Wohlgenuth in 1881. As manager of this store Mr. Wohlgenuth has given evidence of his superior business ability, energy and enterprise. He holds several important business positions, among which is the secretary-ship and general management of the Rochester electric light company, of which he was a promoter. He is treasurer of the Rochester Building and Loan association, and was one of the promoters in the organization of the Rochester Improvement association. He is one of Rochester's most forceful and industrious enterprisers and possesses the happy faculty of giving his surroundings a merry hum whether it be in business or the social circle. In political sentiment he adheres to the democratic party. He has been a member of the Independent Order of Odd Fellows since 1871 and also belongs to the K. of P. order. In 1880 Mr. Wohlgenuth and Miss Ida Holzman were united in marriage. They are among the leading families of Rochester and enjoy the esteem and respect of many friends.

JAMES WRIGHT was born in Jefferson county, Ohio, Feb. 11, 1832. His advent to the county dates back to the year 1847. He was a youth of fifteen years then and still under parental care. His father, Samuel Wright, was born in the same county. The boy was sent to the primitive subscription school during his childhood, but for only a few months in the year for a few years. Samuel Wright was a poor man, emigrating to a new country to get a cheap home, so that he might rear his family under his own roof, though it be that of a cabin. He settled near Tiosa and at once began the task of clearing for the first crop. His sons were brought into service in this work and James was found doing his share. Samuel Wright



J. Zimmerman

died in 1873, aged sixty-nine years. He was descended from the Wrights of Virginia, Jacob Wright, his father, being a son of the Old Dominion state. The mother of our subject was Ruth Lowry. Her children are: Sarah, wife of Christian Carter, of Argos; James, Jacob, Samuel, John and Esther, wife of Samuel Reed, all in Fulton county. James Wright was married in this county in 1855 to Elmyra, daughter of Alexander Harmon, who came to the county early from Columbia county, N. Y., and died the next year. The children of this union are: Carrie, wife of Peter Zerby, of Tiosa, and William, trustee of Richland township. He was born Sept. 11, 1858, has been an active business man of Tiosa for the past dozen years and is now manager of the elevator for Mercer & Neal, of Peru, at Tiosa. He married Amanda Swinehart Sept. 24, 1884, and has five children. Delbert is James Wright's third child. He is engaged in the lumber business at Tiosa. Lydia, wife of A. C. Fuser, Mentone, is the fourth child. Then followed Mollie and Mattie, twins. The latter died in 1894. Mr. Wright owns 130 acres near Tiosa, much of which he has been the means of converting from heavy woodland into productive fields. He and his descendants are republicans, and are mentioned when reference is made to the best citizens of the township.

HON. VALENTINE ZIMMERMAN, who has, through his private and public exertions, become favorably known to a large number of people, is a German-American of the very highest and best type. Mr. Zimmerman was born at Ilbenstadt, near Frankfort, Germany, on Aug. 21, 1844. His parents were Peter and Margaret (Weil) Zimmerman. They had eight children, of which Valentine is the youngest. He was given a good German education, and then served an apprenticeship of three years at the shoemaker's trade. At the age of sixteen years he became a journeyman at his trade, and traveled all throughout Europe. In 1865 he came to America, and for a short time resided in New York city, thence came to Rochester. For fifteen years thereafter Mr. Zimmerman was engaged in the shoe business, both as a manufacturer and retail merchant. In 1879 he closed out that form of business and engaged in the furniture business, in which he has been very successful. He carries a large stock of furniture and agricultural implements. In connection with the business he does undertaking. In 1866, soon after coming to Rochester, Mr. Zimmerman married Martha Newhart, who was then residing in Fulton county, but was a native of New York and of German parentage. Unto the marriage have been born the following children: Martha, the wife of D. D. Ginther, of Rochester; Ida, deceased; Valentine; Minnie and Leo. Some thirty years ago Mr. Zimmerman began his career in America with limited means, but he was a skilled mechanic and worked patiently and intelligently at his trade until, by his industry, wise economy and strict adherence to correct business principles and methods, he has

won from reluctant fortune considerable wealth. It may be said of him with perfect truth that he is pre-eminently a self-made man. His business sagacity and ready ability in applying means to ends have made him a prominent figure in the business circles of Rochester. In politics he has always been a staunch democrat. He was elected state senator for the district of Fulton and Marshall counties in the fall of 1884. His public career as state senator during the sessions of 1885 and 1887 is a part of the state's history. His course in the Indiana state senate indicates that his sympathies are with the laboring classes, from which he himself has sprung. He introduced several bills in behalf of the laborers of all classes, but space cannot be afforded in this connection to describe them. Senator Zimmerman has always been a staunch friend of education. In the legislative session of 1887, he introduced a resolution calling public attention to the large and increasing demand for school text books, and that school book trusts so manipulated the supplying of the same to the parents of school children that exorbitant prices had to be paid for the books. Thereby many poor children were practically debarred from school advantages because of the inability of their parents to supply them books. Then followed the enactment of a bill introduced by Mr. Zimmerman which provided for the publishing and distributing of text books for the common schools at cost by the state. He has twice been honored by the nomination for congress by his political party. In each candidacy for congress his party met with reverse tidal waves, which submerged the hopes of his thousands of friends. But every public trust confided to him from town councilman to state senator has been faithfully and honorably discharged and whether on the tidal wave of popular preferment or caught in the periodical storm of adversity, Mr. Zimmerman has clung tenaciously to his honest convictions and continues a close student of vital questions of public concern.

EDWARD ZOOK, a leading tinner and plumber of Rochester, was born in Wayne county, Ind., June 5, 1848. His father, John Zook, a tinner by trade, was born in Pennsylvania, came to the Hoosier state in the days of Indian trading and trapping. He was engaged in the stove and tinware business in Hagerstown, Wayne county, for a time, but in later life settled on a farm in Wayne township, Fulton county, where he died in 1880. John Zook, our subject's grandfather, was born in Europe. His young and vigorous manhood was passed in Pennsylvania. Edward Zook's mother was Mary Mogle, whose father, Solomon Mogle, was a Pennsylvania German and farmer. Edward is the third of four children. The first, Harry Zook, was last known of in Kansas, some eighteen years ago. The other living ones are: William, residing at Fulton, Ind., and Emma, wife of Joseph Studebaker. Edward Zook was given only a meager education, from the country schools. He began the battles of life at the age of fourteen years, as a farm hand. In 1865

he tired of this life that promised nothing but endless toil and secured a situation with Johnson & Bro. at Logansport to learn his trade. With the exception of one year spent in Camden, Ind., he remained in Logansport till 1872, when he came to Rochester. His only capital was his industry and perseverance. For ten years he was employed continuously by one firm of Rochester, and was then elected to the office of town marshal, in which office he served one year. He then opened a small tin-shop in the rear of Weil & Peterson's hardware store. In 1892 he moved into his present store-room, where he has successfully continued in business. Mr. Zook was married while in Camden, Ind., in January, 1873, to Louisa, a daughter of W. D. Eidson, a miller of Wabash, Ind. The only child of this marriage is Venina, wife of John W. McMahan, of Rochester, whose only child is Edwin L., aged eighteen months. Mr. Zook owns a nice home on Main street; is chief of the fire department; is an Odd Fellow, Mason, and K. O. T. M. He is a republican and is now county coroner, elected with no effort on his part and by a large majority.

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